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A HAND BOOK

— OF —

GREEK AND ROMAN HISTORY

FOR

CANDIDATES PREPARING FOR JUNIOR LEAVING
AND UNIVERSITY MATRICULATION.

COMPILED BY

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INTRODUCTION.

It is not the intention of the author that this work shall take the place of any text book. The object aimed at has been simply to give a succinct outline of the History required for Junior Leaving and University Matriculation. While this has been the aim, it may, however, be found a useful supplement to the ordinary text book, by giving a fuller account of some of the facts than is generally given.

The work in its present form is simply a revised and enlarged edition of notes, which I have used in my own teaching.

Most teachers of History must have felt, at least some time in their career, that the amount of work given us to cover is very great, and that to plunge the ordinary student into the mass of detail as given in most text books is very confusing.

I have found good students who, after going through the text book once, frankly confessed that they knew next to nothing about it.

Now there seems to me to be something wrong. Either we are mistaken in teaching the subject at all, or we are proceeding on wrong principles.

Those of us who have fought our way through, and have acquired some knowledge of the History of Greece and Rome, have come to love it, and it should be our duty, if possible, to lighten the task of those who come after us.

History, in my opinion, has been sadly neglected in our schools. It has generally been taught on the principle that the law requires it, but that any person is quite competent to teach it, and that there is no historical method. The develop-

ment and progress of humanity is surely not a subject of secondary importance. While due place should be given to the Mathematics and Sciences, I still claim that the centre of interest is man as man.

“The God made many wonderful things; but the most wonderful is man.”

History should be the philosophy of the schools. The progress of humanity is not haphazard, and History, from first to last, presents itself as the result of cause and effect quite as clearly as the facts of physical science.

What we are is a result of what we have been, and our future is mirrored in our present.

“We are the heirs of all the ages,” and we are ourselves unconsciously contributing our quota to the heritage of posterity. Apart, then, from the interest which should naturally attach itself to such a subject, it is clearly our duty to acquaint ourselves with the subject, at least in its main outlines. No defence is needed for the study of the history of the two races, to whom we owe the foundation of law and the development of art.

The form which these notes have taken will indicate the method which I would adopt.

To young pupils, and even to those of us who are older, the most interesting part of History is Biography.

I have therefore selected from the names in Greek and Roman History, those which are most prominent, and have given a sketch of each—not too long—yet I trust sufficient to show the part which each had in the making, or it may be the unmaking, of his country.

In Greek History, with its marked individualism, this is especially easy.

In Roman History, where universalism is the most marked feature till the time of the Gracchi, a list of important dates cannot but prove useful.

In arranging the notes on Geography, I have thought it well to give, in most cases, a short note regarding the historical importance of the place, in addition to the description of its locality. This should make it more interesting, and would also serve as a means of review. Some of the more important places, such as Athens, Thebes, Rome, etc., have not been given, because a complete account of them would take up too much space in a work of this kind.

It is difficult to prevent errors from creeping into a compendium of this kind; but I hope that it will be found fairly accurate.

JAMES MACDONALD.

PICTON, October, 1897.

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LEADING MEN

— IN —

GREEK AND ROMAN HISTORY

LYCURGUS.

Of his personal history we have no certain information, and there have been such discrepancies concerning him in ancient writers that many modern critics have doubted his existence altogether.

He is said to have travelled extensively. When he returned to Sparta he found the country in a state of anarchy. He undertook the task of curing the growing evils of the state. Before he set to work, he strengthened himself with the sanction of the Delphic oracle and with a strong body of influential men at Sparta. The reforms seem not to have been carried altogether peaceably, as indeed they must have violated many existing interests. All opposition was however overborne, and the whole constitution, civil and military, was remodelled.

After Lycurgus had secured for his laws the sanction of the Delphic oracle, he extorted a promise that the nation would keep them till his return, and went into voluntary banishment.

Lycurgus cannot have lived later than 825 B.C.

The Spartan constitution was of a mixed character, the monarchical element being represented by the kings, the aristocracy by the senate, and the democratic element by the assembly of the people, and later by the ephors. The kings were originally the high priests, judges and leaders in war; but in course of time they lost much of their power. The elders formed an aristocracy among the Spartans. All Spartans were equal. The assembly consisted of all Spartans who had reached the age of thirty. They met at stated times to decide on all important questions brought before them; but they had no right of amendment. The chief importance of the assembly consisted in delegating powers to the ephors. The ephors answer in every characteristic feature to the R. tribunes. Their origin is wrapped in obscurity and insignificance; but in the end they engrossed all powers.

The people were divided into three classes, the ruling Spartans, the perioeci, who paid rent to the state, and the helots, who paid rent to their masters, and resembled the villeins of feudal ages.

The constitution aimed at making the Spartans a nation of warriors. In Sparta, the history not only of the mechanical arts but the nobler sciences is a blank. The state took care of the education of a Spartan from his cradle to his grave, and superintended his education in the minutest points.

1. His personal history.
2. Condition of Sparta on his return from his travels.
3. His constitution and its object.
4. Divisions of the people.

SOLON.

He was probably born about 638 B.C. Owing to the improvidence of his father, he found it convenient or necessary to engage in foreign commerce. He early distinguished himself by his political abilities, and so widely did his fame spread, that he was reckoned among the seven sages. The war between Athens and Megara first gave him prominence on the political stage.

A tedious war ensued; but Sparta being appointed arbitress decided in favour of Athens, 596.

On account of the distracted state of Athens he was called upon by all parties to mediate between them, and alleviate their miseries.

He was chosen archon, 594, and under that legal title was invested with unlimited power.

He addressed himself to the relief of the existing distress. This he effected with the greatest discretion and success in his celebrated disburdening ordinance, *seisachtheia*, a measure consisting of various distinct provisions calculated to relieve the debtors, with as little infringement as possible on the claims of wealthy creditors.

The details of this measure, however, are veiled in considerable obscurity. The success of his disburdening ordinance procured for him such confidence and popularity, that he was further charged with the task of remodelling the constitution.

As a preliminary step, he abolished all the laws of Drako except those referring to bloodshed.

Under his constitution the rights of citizens to the

honors and offices of state were regulated by their wealth.

The people were divided into four classes, the first three classes alone being liable to direct taxation.

To Solon is ascribed the institution of the *boule*, with its four hundred members, representing the four tribes.

The *ecclesia* had the right of electing the archons and other magistrates; and at the end of their term of office they had to give an account to the *boule*.

Besides the arrangement of the general political relations of the people, Solon was the author of a great variety of special laws, which do not seem to have been arranged in any systematic manner. He extorted a promise from the people that they would not change the laws for a certain number of years, though provision was made for remodelling the constitution, as he declared that his laws were not the best, but the best which the Athenians would have received.

On his return from his travels in 560, his kinsman, Peisistratus, seized the tyranny and overthrew the constitution. Two years later Solon died.

1. His early life.
2. War between Athens and Megara.
3. His relief of the poorer classes.
4. His constitution.

(a) Offices.

(b) Classes of the people.

(c) Senate.

(d) Assembly.

PEISISTRATUS.

Peisistratus, tyrant of Athens, traced his descent to Nestor of Pylos. He was also a kinsman of the lawgiver Solon. He assisted Solon, by his eloquence, in persuading the Athenians to renew the struggle with Megara, and he afterwards fought in the expedition which Solon led against Salamis. When Solon, after the establishment of his constitution, retired for a time from Athens, the old rivalry between the parties of the Plains, the Coast, and the Highlands broke out into open feud. Peisistratus was head of the party of the Highlands, which was composed of ardent democrats. His liberality, as well as his military and oratorical abilities, gained him the support of a large body of the citizens. Solon quickly saw through the designs of Peisistratus; but the people were deaf to his warnings.

Peisistratus managed to secure the tyranny in the year 560.

Having secured for himself the substance of power he made no further change in the constitution or laws, which he administered ably and well.

In a short time his rivals drove him from Athens. He was restored after an absence of six years. He was again expelled and retired to Eretria, where he remained for ten years. He then invaded Athens, and defeated his opponents. Having now become tyrant for the third time, Peisistratus adopted measures to secure the undisturbed possession of his supremacy.

He took a body of foreign mercenaries into his pay, and sent the children of his opponents, as hostages, to the

island of Naxos, which he had conquered, and over which he placed Lygdamis as tyrant. He maintained the form of Solon's institutions, only taking care that the highest offices should be in his own family.

He improved the city by the erection of public buildings, and paid much attention to literature. The date of his death is 527.

1. Who he was.
2. His life previous to his tyranny.
3. Divisions of the people.
4. His attitude towards the constitution of Solon.
5. His banishment.
6. His service to Athens.

CLEISTHENES.

Cleisthenes, the third of the legislators of Athens, lived about the close of the sixth and the beginning of the fifth centuries.

On the expulsion of Hippias in 510, Cleisthenes, of the family of the Alkmæonidæ, became the leader of the Athenian people.

His rival, Isagoras, the leader of the oligarchic faction, called in the aid of the Spartan Cleomenes. Cleisthenes then withdrew from Athens. The arrogant conduct of Cleomenes however roused the spirit of the Athenians, who forced him to leave Athens, and Cleisthenes was brought back.

He then proceeded to mould the constitution into a still more democratic form than that given by Solon.

In place of the four tribes of Solon he formed ten new tribes, in which were enrolled all the free inhabitants of Athens.

These tribes were made up of a number of sub-divisions, called demes.

In the interest of democratic equality, each member of a deme was to have added to his individual name the name of his deme, instead of his father's name.

The demes constituting a tribe were not contiguous.

This effected such a radical change that he, rather than Solon, is regarded as the founder of the Athenian democracy.

The council of the four hundred was remodelled. Its membership was raised to five hundred, fifty from each tribe. Its chief duties were to prepare recommendations to be acted upon by the popular assembly, and to exercise certain judicial and administrative functions.

The Areopagus was essentially unchanged, but the strengthening of the democratic organs of the government resulted in a lessening of its power and influence.

Certain changes were made in the organization of the army. In place of the four Strategi who commanded the forces of the four old tribes, ten were elected.

Of all the institutions of Cleisthenes, that known as ostracism was the most characteristic. By this any person who had excited the suspicion or dislike of the Athenian people might be banished for a period of ten years.

The vote simply expressed political preference. No stigma or disgrace was attached to it.

From this time dates the marvellous patriotism and energy of the Athenians. The tide surged forward, carrying them victoriously through the Persian wars, till it reached its climax in the marvellous age of Perikles.

1. Time at which he lived.

2. His family.

3. His rival.

4. His Constitution.

Tribal divisions.

Strengthening of democracy.

ARISTIDES.

Aristides, surnamed the just, belonged to an ancient and noble family. At Marathon, he fought at the head of his tribe, and was archon, 489. Owing to the triumph of the democratic and maritime policy of Themistocles, he was ostracised, 483. He was still in exile at the time of the battle of Salamis, where he did good service by fighting at the head of a band raised and armed by himself.

He was shortly afterwards recalled from exile, and commanded the Athenian forces at Platæa.

In 477, when the allies became disgusted with the conduct of Pausanias and his Spartan confederates, he with Cimon had the honor of obtaining for Athens the control of the maritime confederacy, and was appointed to draw up its laws and apportion the taxation, which he fixed at 460 talents. He died in 468, so poor that he had to be buried at the expense of the state.

1. His part in the Persian wars.

2. His part in forming the Delian Confederacy.

THEMISTOCLES.

Themistocles was born about 514. In his youth he had an impetuous character. He displayed high intellectual endowments, combined with a lofty ambition and desire for political distinction.

He began his career by setting himself in opposition to those in power, especially Aristides, and was mainly instrumental in bringing about his ostracism in 483, and from that time he became a political leader at Athens.

He then persuaded the Athenians to expend the profits of the mines of Laurium on the fleet, as in this he foresaw the salvation of Greece and the greatness of Athens. On the invasion of Greece in 480 he was placed at the head of the Athenian fleet, and it was mainly owing to his energy, prudence, forethought and courage that Greece was saved.

After the victory over the Persians at Salamis he was received with great honor, not only at Athens but also at Sparta.

His popularity does not seem to have survived the expulsion of the Persians, and the fortification of the ports.

In 471 he was ostracised and went to Argos.

In 466 a charge was brought against him by the Spartans, when he fled to Corcyra and thence to Epirus, thence to Pydna and finally escaped to Persia, where now Artaxerxes was ruling.

He gained great influence over the Persian king, and spent his last days in regal splendor.

He undoubtedly possessed great abilities as a statesman, great political sagacity, a ready wit and excellent judgment, but he was not an honest man, and like many other clever men with little morality he ended his life unhappily and ingloriously, as an exile and traitor.

1. Early promise.
 2. Beginning of his political career.
 3. The Persian wars.
 4. His fall and exile.
-

CIMON.

Cimon was son of the great Miltiades. On the death of his father, in 489, he was imprisoned because he could not pay the fine imposed upon his father. He was subsequently released. He first distinguished himself at Plataea, and was brought forward by Aristides.

He frequently commanded the Athenian fleet in the wars with the Persians. His greatest success was at Eurymedon, 466.

After his insulting dismissal by the Spartans, 461, he was banished. He was afterwards recalled, and helped to bring about the five years peace, in 450.

In 449 the war with the Persians was renewed, and he died while besieging Kition, 449.

1. Who he was.
2. Services in war with the Persians.
3. His expedition to assist the Spartans and his dismissal.
4. His ostracism, recall and death.

PERIKLES.

Perikles, the greatest of Athenian statesmen, belonged to one of the noblest families at Athens. He was carefully educated by the leading philosophers of the day. His oratory was characterized by singular energy, and force. His style was lofty and pure, the fitting expression of the dignity and force of his character, and the grandeur of his conceptions. In 469 he came forward as the leader of the democracy, whose favor he had gained by the laws he succeeded in carrying for their benefit. Thus he enacted that the poorer classes should be allowed money from the public treasury to enable them to attend the theatre, and that the jurymen should be paid.

In 461 he and his friend Ephialtes practically abolished the power of the Areopagus.

He was distinguished as a general, as well as a statesman. He led an expedition into Phocis, 448. In 445 he reduced the island of Euboea, which had revolted. In 440 he led a successful expedition to Samos.

From 444, when Thucydides was ostracised, down to the time of his death, no rival disputed his power; but the boundless influence he possessed was never perverted to sinister or unworthy purposes. He was not a mere demagogue. He never flattered or courted the multitude. Between 440 and 430 he devoted himself mainly to strengthening the navy, and beautifying the city. Yet he had many enemies, though his high character and probity rendered all personal attacks harmless.

At the outbreak of the Peloponnesian war he encour-

aged the Athenians, because he saw that, with her present prosperity, Athens would always be exposed to the jealousy of Sparta. He lived only a little over two years after the outbreak of the war.

1. His family.
 2. His early training.
 3. His chief characteristics.
 4. His politics.
 5. His generalship.
 6. His power over the people.
-

NIKIAS.

Nikias was a celebrated Athenian general during the Peloponnesian war.

His immense wealth, unambitious character, and opposition to dangerous innovations brought him into connection with the aristocratic party.

He was several times associated with Perikles as general, and his great prudence and high character gained him considerable influence.

On the death of Perikles he came forward more openly as the opponent of Cleon and the democrats, but his military reputation, mildness of character, and the liberal use of his wealth brought him the respect of his fellow citizens.

He frequently commanded the Athenians during the Peloponnesian war.

After Cleon's death he brought about a peace in 421.

Nikias strove hard for peace, in opposition to the war party headed by Alkibiades.

In 415 he was appointed one of the generals in Sicily. After the recall of Alkibiades the chief command devolved on Nikias, who was very successful, till the arrival of Gylippus in 413. Nikias then asked for reinforcements, and that a successor should be appointed. The Athenians sent reinforcements under Demosthenes and Eurymedon, but refused to recall Nikias. The Athenians were shortly afterwards defeated, and their fleet was destroyed.

While attempting to retreat from Syracuse into the interior of the island the Athenian forces were surrounded and destroyed, and Nikias and Demosthenes were compelled to drink the deadly hemlock.

1. His family, character, politics, popularity.
 2. His peace policy.
 3. His military career.
 4. The peace of 421.
 5. The Sicilian disaster.
-

CLEON.

Cleon, the tanner, first came forward as an opponent of Perikles.

On the death of Perikles, 429, he became the favourite of the people, and between that time and 422 was the chief leader of the war party.

He is represented by the writers of the time as a demagogue of the lowest type, mean, ignorant, cowardly, and venal; but this picture has probably been overdrawn.

He may be taken as a representative of the middle class at Athens, and by his ready but somewhat coarse eloquence gained great influence over them. In 427 he strongly advocated the punishment of the people of Mitylene. In 425 he gained his greatest renown by his success at Sphakteria. Puffed up by his success, he gained the command of the Athenian army to oppose Brasidas in Thrace; but he was defeated and killed before Amphipolis, 422.

1. His social and political position.
2. His personal character.
3. His part in the Peloponnesian war.

Mitylene.

Sphakteria.

Amphipolis.

ALKIBIADES.

Alkibiades was born at Athens, 450. On the death of his father, he was brought up by his kinsman Perikles.

In his younger days he led a dissolute life, and Socrates, who saw his vast capabilities, strove in vain to lead him to the path of virtue. Their intimacy was strengthened by mutual services. At the battle of Potidæa, 432, his life was saved by Socrates, and at Delium, 424, he saved the life of Socrates. He took no prominent part in poli-

tics till 422, when on the death of Cleon he became head of the war party. Enraged on account of a slight put upon him by Sparta, he induced Athens in 421 to form alliances with Argos, Mantinea and Elis, and to declare war against the Spartans.

In 415 he was the foremost advocate of the Sicilian expedition which he believed would be a step towards the conquest of Italy, Carthage and the Peloponnesus. While the preparations for the expedition were going on there occurred the mysterious mutilation of the statues of Hermes. The popular fear associated this in some way with an attempt to overthrow the constitution. Alkibiades then demanded a trial; but this was refused. Scarcely, however, had the expedition reached Sicily when he was ordered to return. Nikias and Lamachus were left to conduct the war in Sicily. While returning Alkibiades escaped from his guards at Thurii. He then proceeded to Sparta, where he acted as the avowed enemy of his country. At Athens, sentence of death was pronounced against him and his property was confiscated.

Owing to a breach of hospitality he was forced to leave Sparta. He then took refuge with the Persian satrap, Tissaphernes. Through his advice Tissaphernes deserted the Spartans, and professed his willingness to assist the Athenians on condition that an oligarchical government should be established at Athens.

Alkibiades was now recalled from banishment in 411; but he remained abroad for four years.

During this time the Athenians defeated the Spartans at Cynossema, Abydos and Cyzicus, and gained the towns of Chalcedon and Byzantium. He returned to

Athens in 407. He was there received with enthusiasm, and was given full control of the fleet.

The defeat at Notium, caused by the carelessness of his lieutenant, gave his enemies a handle against him. He was deprived of the command of the fleet. He retired to the Thracian Chersonese. After the fall of Athens in 404 he was condemned to banishment and took refuge with Pharnabazus.

When about to proceed to the court of the king of Persia he was assassinated, 404.

1. His younger days.
His education.
His dissolute life.
His intimacy with Socrates.
2. His policy regarding the Peloponnesian war.
Alliance against Sparta.
Sicilian expedition.
3. Goes to Sparta.
4. Forced to leave—appointed general by the Athenian army.
5. Returns to Athens.
6. The defeat at Notium and banishment of Alkibiades.

EPAMINONDAS.

Epaminondas, the ablest of the generals and statesmen of Thebes, was born and reared in poverty, though his blood was noble.

His close and enduring friendship with Pelopidas is said to have originated in the campaign in which they

served together on the Spartan side against Mantinea, in 385 B.C.

In the peace of Antalkidas, 387, it was stipulated that all the Greek states should be autonomous. This treaty closed the struggle commonly known as the Corinthian war, 395-387, in which Corinth, Athens, Thebes and Argos had allied themselves against Sparta during the absence of Agesilaos in Asia.

The allies were supported by Persia, and Sparta finding herself hard pressed sent Antalkidas to Persia to bring about a peace.

Although Sparta was thus the prime mover in forming this treaty, and constituted herself the executor of it, she refused to carry out its terms as far as her own allies were concerned.

Nay, more. When Acanthus and Apollonia asked for help against the Chalcidian league, Sparta sent her armies against Olynthus, and after a struggle of three years forced Olynthus to surrender, and broke up the Chalcidian league. Thus was destroyed what might have proved a bulwark to Greece against the advance of the barbarian.

While the Spartan general, Phœbidas, was marching through Bœotia he treacherously seized the citadel of Thebes.

All Greece expected that Sparta would disavow the act; but although she imposed a fine upon Phœbidas, and deprived him of his command, she was ready to profit by his treachery, and retained possession of the Theban citadel.

Even Xenophon, the admirer and steady friend of the Spartans, was constrained to see in the misfortunes which now began to befall them, the divine retribution for their violation of their solemn pledges to leave the Greek cities free and independent, and above all for their crime in seizing the citadel of Thebes.

As if to meet the requirements of ideal justice, the avengers of the wrongs of Thebes were raised up from among those very persons whom that act had made exiles from their native city.

Among the exiles at Athens was Pelopidas, a Theban of noble family, and a man of generous enthusiasm and firm resolution. Accompanied by a few friends, he succeeded in entering Thebes by stealth, and slew the leaders of the oligarchs.

The people were called to arms and the Spartan garrison was forced to surrender. Thus began the Theban war, which lasted 379-362.

It was now that Epaminondas began to take a leading part in the affairs of his native city.

The war naturally falls into two periods.

During the first, 379-371, the Thebans acted on the defensive; and while the Spartans, under the command first of Agesilaos and afterwards of Cleombrotus, invaded and ravaged Bœotia, and established garrisons at Orchomenus and Thespiæ, Pelopidas and Epaminondas drilled their army.

The Athenians, when the war began, formed an alliance with Thebes, and succeeded in forming a new confederacy.

This confederacy numbered seventy states and its principles were to rest on absolute justice and equality.

The Athenians, however, grew lukewarm in their support of the Theban war. The growing power of Thebes was beginning to excite their jealousy, and the allies of Athens were likewise looking with alarm upon the increase of her power.

Under these circumstances a conference took place at Corinth, 372. There the peace of Antalkidas was renewed. Sparta took the oath for herself and her allies, Athens and her allies took the oath separately. Thebes wished to ratify the treaty in the same way as Sparta. A dispute arose, and finally Agesilaos erased the name of Thebes from the treaty.

Cleombrotus, the Spartan king, was ordered to lead an army against Thebes.

The hostile armies met at Leuctra, and for the first time in history a Spartan army was defeated by forces numerically inferior. This battle, one of the most important in Greek history, destroyed the Spartan supremacy. From Leuctra dates the period of Theban supremacy. The Spartans were now driven out of Bœotia.

The victory of the Thebans was due chiefly to the military genius of Epaminondas, and the reforms which he had introduced into the army.

Sparta now lost most of her allies.

In the year after the battle of Leuctra, Epaminondas invaded the Peloponnesus for the first time. On this occasion he marched throughout the length of the Peloponnesus, from the gulf of Corinth to the Laconian gulf.

He united the towns and villages of Arcadia into a state, with Megalopolis as its capital. The freedom of Messenia was then proclaimed. Thus, in a few short months, there had been effected one of the greatest revolutions in Greek history. In his own words, Epaminondas had liberated all the Greek cities, restored independence to Messenia, and surrounded Sparta with a perpetual blockade.

Epaminondas repeated his invasion of the Peloponnesus in 368, as also in 366. However, but little was accomplished in these invasions and the Thebans, occupied with wars in Thessaly, were prevented for some years from again invading Southern Greece.

Athens, after Leuctra, allied herself with Sparta, but had been unable to prevent the Thebans from penetrating into the Peloponnesus.

In 362, Epaminondas for the fourth and, as it proved, for the last time invaded Spartan territory. The Thebans gained a complete victory at Mantinea; but the victory was dearly bought. Epaminondas was slain.

With the death of Epaminondas the supremacy of Thebes came to an end, after lasting for ten years, 371-362, from Leuctra-Mantineia.

With the death of Epaminondas, too, there came to an end that national Hellenic policy which he had advocated, and of which he is perhaps the sole exponent in the whole of Greek history.

Not till Chæronea did any state again occupy a pre-eminent place in Greek affairs.

1. Conditions of Greece.
The arrogance of Sparta.
Peace of Antalkidas.
 2. Spartan expedition against Olynthus seizes Thebes.
 3. War of Theban liberation.
 4. Thebes refuses to renew the peace of Antalkidas in the manner desired by the Spartans.
 5. Leuctra—Thebes assumes the offensive.
 6. The four invasions of the Peloponnesus.
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PHILIP OF MACEDON.

He was born in 382. He was brought up at Thebes, whither he had been carried as a hostage by Pelopidas, and where he received a most careful education.

Upon the death of his brother Perdiccas, in battle with the Illyrians, Philip obtained the government of Macedonia merely as regent and guardian to his nephew, but soon found himself strong enough to assume the title king, 359.

Macedonia was beset on every side. The Illyrians were attacking it on the west, the Paeonians on the north, while he had two rivals. In less than a year, by his tact and eloquence, and by the reforms he introduced into the army and which he had learned during his captivity, he had provided for the security of Macedonia, and was at the age of twenty-four firmly seated on the throne.

But energy and talents such as his were not satisfied with mere security. His first efforts were to get possession of the various Greek cities on the coast of Macedonia.

Soon after his accession, to please the Athenians, he withdrew the garrison from Amphipolis and declared himself willing to give it up, if he received Pydna. Shortly after he found a pretext for war against Amphipolis, and took possession of it. He then marched against Pydna and took possession of it, and as he had gained it by force of arms he refused to give it up. The consequent hostility of Athens made it necessary to secure the good will of the powerful city of Olynthus. So he gave them Potidæa, which he took from Athens, 356. Soon after he took from the Thasians a settlement called Crenides, but which he named Philippi. The gold mines in the neighbourhood passed into his hands, the profits of which enabled him to pay large sums to his spies throughout Greece.

In 352 he took Methone, which barred his way into Thessaly. Marching into Thessaly, he took sides against Lycophron, tyrant of Pheræ, who was supported by the Phocian general Onomarchus. The Phocians were defeated and Onomarchus was killed.

This victory gave him control of Thessaly. He then marched southward to Thermopylæ, but finding the pass guarded by the Athenians was forced to retire. He next directed his attention to Thrace, where also he gained the ascendancy.

Meanwhile Philip's movements had opened the eyes of Demosthenes, and in 352 he delivered his first Philippic

against him, but Demosthenes failed to rouse his countrymen.

In 349 he commenced his attack on the cities of the Chalcid. Olynthus applied to Athens for aid, and the Athenians were urged by Demosthenes to send help but failed to do so, and Olynthus fell, 346.

Philip then marched upon Phokis and destroyed their cities, and stepped into the place of the Phokians in the Amphiktyonic council.

Between 342 and 340 Philip was engaged in Thrace. In 340 he attacked Perinthus and Byzantium, which were relieved by the Athenians under Phokion.

Philip now seemed to give himself no concern about the affairs of Greece, and waged war with his northern neighbors.

In 339 the Amphiktyons declared war against Amphisso, and being unable to accomplish anything, appointed Philip commander of their forces.

Philip marched through Thermopylæ and seized Elateia. The Athenians and Thebans now united their forces, but were completely defeated by Philip at Chæronea, August, 338. Thebes paid dear for her resistance; but Athens was treated with great leniency.

Philip now seemed to be within reach of his cherished design of invading Persia as commander-in-chief of the Greek armies.

A congress met at Corinth, 337, to which all states, except Sparta, sent delegates. This congress agreed to support the plans of Philip.

Early in 336 forces were sent to Asia under Parmenion to gain over the Greek cities, but in the summer of 336 Philip was murdered.

1. His early training.
2. The difficulties of Macedonia.
3. His struggle with the Athenians in the Thraceward regions.

Amphipolis and Pydna.

Potidæa.

Crenides.

4. His first contest with the Phocians in Thessaly.
5. His attack on the Chalcid.
6. He subdues the Phocians.
7. He attacks Perinthus and Byzantium.
8. Sacred war—Chæronea.
9. Congress at Corinth.
10. Assassination.

DEMOSTHENES.

Demosthenes, the last of the statesmen of Athens, was born in 385.

He was the statesman of Greek decline, endowed with the spirit and entertaining the views of the age of Perikles.

Demosthenes was born too late for the salvation of Athens and Greece generally.

There is something almost pathetic in his struggle with the inevitable. In this he resembles Porcius Cato.

One of the first orations of Demosthenes was on the state of the navy.

He thought that a restoration of Athenian maritime supremacy was still possible.

There is very little worth noticing in Athenian history from the close of the Peloponnesian war, 404, to the struggle with Philip.

The vigor and genius of the people had died out with their decline in political power.

Their leaders were self-seeking demagogues.

It is true that, during the Corinthian war, we see Athens acting with something of her old vigor, and in the new confederacy formed under her leadership there is an echo of the days of the Delian confederacy; but the general trend of the affairs of the city was downward.

In the war between Thebes and Sparta, Athens began by allying herself with Thebes, and ended by becoming an ally of Sparta.

These unfortunate struggles of Greeks with Greeks were merely preparing the way for their conquest by a foreigner.

In 358 Philip became king of Macedonia. He immediately set before himself the task of driving the Athenians from the Thraceward regions, and on one pretence or another succeeded before 352 in getting possession of Amphipolis, Potidæa and Methone.

In 352 Philip entered Thessaly and, after defeating the Phokian leader Onomarchos, advanced southward to Thermopylæ, but retreated on finding the pass guarded by the Athenians.

The political sagacity of Demosthenes enabled him to see through the designs of Philip, and he determined to do his utmost to rouse his countrymen to resist the aggression of the Macedonian.

In 352 Demosthenes delivered the first of his four Philippics, orations so noted for their trenchant vigor that the name has become proverbial.

In these orations he pointed out that it was better to fight Philip in Thrace than in Attica.

In 349 Philip began his attack on the cities of the Chalcidian league.

Demosthenes then delivered his three Olynthiacs.

Not even the eloquence of Demosthenes, however, could rouse the Athenians to timely and effective action.

Olynthus fell in 346. The city was destroyed and its inhabitants sold into slavery.

In 346 the peace of Philocrates was concluded between Philip and the Athenians.

The interference of the Macedonian king in the affairs of Southern Greece led Demosthenes to undertake his mission to the Peloponnesus. Very little resulted from this. It increased, however, the prestige of Demosthenes at home, something of importance, for there was a powerful peace party at Athens, the leaders of which were Phokion and Aeschines.

Phokion was a patriotic statesman and skilful general, who thought that the interests of Athens would best be served by keeping peace; but Aeschines was simply the paid tool of Philip.

In 342 the operations of Philip in Thrace were checked by the Athenian general Diopeithes.

He then laid siege to Byzantium.

In 341 Demosthenes delivered his third and fourth Philippics.

In 340 Athens declared war against Philip, and the Athenian army, under Phokion, succeeded in driving Philip back.

In 338 began the second sacred war, which gave Philip his long wished for opportunity. After the defeat at Chæronea Athens was mildly treated by Philip; but on his death Demosthenes urged his countrymen to renew the struggle for freedom. It was not successful, and it was with the greatest difficulty that permission was secured from Alexander for Demosthenes to remain at Athens.

In 330 Demosthenes delivered his oration on The Crown.

On the death of Alexander, 323, the Greek states rose again, and Demosthenes took a leading part in the affairs of Athens; but their defeat at Cranon forced him to go into exile. He took refuge at Calauria; but finding himself pursued by the emissaries of Antipater, he took poison and died, 322.

1. Position of Demosthenes in Athenian and Greek history.

2. Trend of Athenian affairs.
 3. His opposition to Philip.
His Philippics and Olynthiacs.
 4. Peace of Philocrates.
 5. His opposition to Alexander.
 6. Oration on *The Crown*.
 7. Athens renews the struggle on the death of Alexander.
 8. Cranon—suicide of Demosthenes.
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TIBERIUS SEMPRONIUS GRACCHUS.

Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus was the son of T. Gracchus, Governor of Spain, and Cornelia, daughter of Scipio Africanus. While travelling to Spain, he noticed in passing through Etruria the poverty of the middle classes. The nobles in Etruria had introduced slave labor to a great extent. They thus became wealthy, while the poorer classes of Roman citizens could not make a living.

He resolved to use every effort to remedy this state of things by endeavoring to create an independent middle class of agriculturists, and to put a check upon the unbounded avarice of the ruling class, whose covetousness combined with the disasters of the second Punic war had completely destroyed the middle class of small landowners.

He was elected tribune, 133.

His first measure was the re-enactment of the Licinian laws, with a few changes in favor of the ruling class.

Octavius, one of the tribunes, vetoed the measure. Gracchus had him solemnly deposed at a meeting of the people. Three men were appointed to see that the law was carried out.

About this time Attalus, king of Pergamus died, leaving his kingdom to the Romans. Gracchus proposed that this should be given to the poor to enable them to buy implements.

When Gracchus presented himself for re-election, 132, the senate declared that no man could lawfully hold this position for two successive years.

Tiberius paid no attention to this; but when the tribes were voting a band of senators attacked the people and Gracchus was killed.

1. His family.
2. Condition of Italy.
3. Tribune of the people.

Opposition of Octavius.

4. Gracchus presents himself for re-election and is killed.

CAIUS SEMP. GRACCHUS.

Caius was in Spain at the time of his brother's murder. He returned to Rome soon after, but held aloof from politics for some years.

In 126 he was *quæstor* in Sardinia. In 124 he returned to Rome. Urged on by the popular wish and

by the desire of avenging his brother, he became a candidate for the tribuneship, 123. His reforms were far more extensive than those of his brother. His first measure was the renewal of his brother's Agrarian law.

He next carried several laws for the amelioration of the condition of the poor, *e.g.*, he enacted a law that soldiers should be equipped at the expense of the state. In order to weaken the power of the senate he carried a law transferring the judicial power from the senators to the equites, and that every year before the consuls were elected the senate should determine the provinces of the consuls.

He gave a regular organization to the province of Asia. No branch of the administration seems to have escaped his notice.

To facilitate intercourse between the different parts of Italy, and to give employment to the poor, he made new roads and repaired the old ones.

He was re-elected 122. The senate finding it impossible to resist the measures of Caius, resolved if possible to destroy his influence. They persuaded M. Livius Drusus to propose measures still more popular than those of Caius. The people allowed themselves to be duped, and the influence of Gracchus grew less.

During his absence in Africa, whither he had gone to establish a colony at Carthage, his party had been considerably weakened by the influence of Drusus, and many of his friends deserted him.

He failed to obtain the tribuneship for 121, and when his term of office was up his enemies began repealing

his enactments. Gracchus appeared in the forum to oppose these proceedings.

A riot took place, and Gracchus, after having escaped across the Tiber to avoid falling into the hands of his enemies, was slain by his slave.

1. His life previous to his tribuneship.

2. Tribune for 123.

Agrarian law.

Payment of soldiers.

Change in method of appointing judges.

Administration of Asia.

Repairing of roads.

3. Re-elected 122—Opposition of Drusus.

4. Defeated in 121—His death.

CAIUS MARIUS.

He was born at Arpinum, in 157, of humble parentage.

He first distinguished himself at the siege of Numantia, 134.

His name does not occur again for fifteen years.

In 119 he was elected tribune of the plebs, and in this office acted as the champion of the popular party.

In 109 he went to Africa as legate to the consul, Q. Metellus.

Here, in the war with Jugurtha, his military genius had ample opportunity to display itself.

In 107 he was elected consul, and was given the command against Jugurtha. Marius returned to Rome on the first day of his second consulship, 104.

Rome was now threatened with an invasion of the Cimbri and Teutones, and Marius was looked upon as the only man capable of saving the state. The danger however was for a time averted.

The Cimbri marched into Spain. They returned to Gaul in 103. The Teutones were defeated at Aquae Sextiae in 102, and in the following year the Cimbri were likewise defeated at Campi Raudii. Marius was received at Rome with unprecedented honors, and continued in the consulship for the year 100.

The career of Marius from this time does him little credit. He allied himself with Glaucia and Saturninus. He drove his old enemy, Metellus, into exile when he opposed the Agrarian law of Marius. The infamous acts of Glaucia and Saturninus at last forced Marius to declare himself against them. His conduct in this affair was blamed by the people, who looked upon him as a traitor to his former friends. Marius afterwards took part in the social war. Being desirous of the command in the war against Mithridates, he allied himself with the tribune P. Sulp. Rufus. Through the assistance of Rufus a decree was carried in the assembly of the tribes annulling the decree of the senate, and conferring the command on Marius in place of Sulla. Sulla fled to the army at Nola, and when Marius sent officers to take over the command of the troops Sulla marched upon Rome. Marius fled, was taken prisoner, but finally escaped to Africa. On Sulla's departure a revolution took place at

Rome and Cinna the popular leader was driven out. Marius now returned. He and Cinna entered Rome in triumph. Marius and Cinna now became consuls, but Marius died eighteen days later.

1. His social position.
2. Serves under Scipio.
3. Tribune, 119.
4. Goes to Africa—is elected consul and succeeds to the command of Metellus.
5. His success against the Teutones and Cimbri.
6. His political career.
7. His final struggle with Sulla—receives the 7th consulship—his death.

SULLA.

L. Cornelius Sulla was born in 138.

His means were sufficient to procure him a good education.

He studied Greek and Roman literature, and early in life imbibed a love for literature and art.

He was quæstor to Marius in 107. In this position he displayed both zeal and ability.

Sulla continued to serve under Marius till 102, when, owing to the jealousy of Marius, he joined Catulus, who entrusted to him the chief management of the war.

In 93 he was prætor, and in 92 went to Cilicia as governor, where he again distinguished himself by defeating the generals of Mithridates.

The enmity between Sulla and Marius now assumed a more deadly form.

Sulla's ability and reputation led the aristocratic party to look upon him as their head, and thus political animosity was added to private hatred.

In the social war, the achievements of Marius were overshadowed by the superior energy of Sulla.

In 88 Sulla was elected consul, and was given the command against Mithridates.

Then followed his expulsion from Rome, his return at the head of his legions, and the proscription of Marius and his leading adherents.

Sulla remained at Rome till the beginning of 87, when he left for Greece to conduct the war against Mithridates.

He landed at Dyrrachium and marched upon Athens, which he took after a long siege, and then defeated Archelaos in two battles.

Sulla crossed to Asia in 84 and concluded a peace with Mithridates.

He then turned his arms against Fimbria, a Roman officer but a partizan of Marius, who had been conducting the war successfully against Mithridates.

He returned to Italy in the spring of 83.

The struggle was brought to a close by a victory at the Colline gate over the Samnites and Lucanians.

Sulla was now master of Rome and Italy and he took ample vengeance.

At the commencement of the reign of terror that ensued, and towards the close of 81, he was appointed dictator for an indefinite length of time.

His chief object in being invested with the dictatorship was to carry into execution, in a legal manner, his great reforms in the constitution and the administration of justice. The general object of his reforms was to restore, as far as possible, the ancient Roman constitution, and to give back to the senate and aristocracy the power they had lost. Thus he deprived the tribunes of all real power, and abolished entirely the legislative and judicial functions of the comitia tributa, and restored the judicial power to the senate.

To strengthen his power he established military colonies throughout Italy. After holding the dictatorship till the beginning of 79, he resigned it and retired to Puteoli, where he died in 78.

1. His early life.
2. His service with Marius.
3. His politics.
4. His part in the social war.
5. His campaigns in Greece.
6. His return to Italy.
7. Sulla dictator—His constitutional and judicial reforms.

POMPEY.

Cneius Pompey was born in 106.

He fought under his father in the war against the Italians. During the following five years the Marian party had control of Italy, and Pompey was forced to

keep in the background. When in 84 news came that Sulla was about to return, Pompey raised three legions for him, and fought with much distinction in the civil war. In 82 he was sent to put down the Marian party in Sicily and Africa.

On his return to Rome he was received with much enthusiasm, and given the honor of a triumph. In 77 he took part in the war against Lepidus.

He was sent to Spain in 76 to conduct the war against Sertorius, and remained there till 71.

On his return to Rome he obtained the consulship for 70. He now openly broke with the aristocracy and joined the popular party. He proposed and carried a law restoring to the tribunes the power of which they had been deprived by Sulla.

He then lent his aid to the prætor, Aurelius Cotta, who carried a law dividing the judicial power between the senators, equites and tribuni ærarii.

In 67 the Gabinian law gave him the command against the pirates. In this war he was completely successful. While in Asia the Manilian law of 66 gave him the command against Mithridates. Pompey pursued Mithridates into Colchis. He then returned and spent the winter of 65 in Pontus.

In 64 he advanced into Syria and made that country a province of Rome.

In 63 he advanced into Phœnicia and Palestine and subdued them.

He returned to Italy in 62, and was again honored with a triumph.

With this triumph the first and more glorious part of Pompey's life ended. His life had up to this time been an almost uninterrupted succession of military glory. Now he was called upon to take part in politics, for which neither his natural talents nor his previous life had fitted him. Pompey scarcely knew which side to take. The Gabinian and Manilian laws had been carried contrary to the wishes of the aristocrats; while he did not wish to ally himself with the democrats, who had risen into importance during his absence, and over whom Cæsar had unbounded influence.

What engaged his immediate attention was the question of obtaining the senate's ratification of his acts in Asia, and an assignment of lands which he had promised his veterans. The senate, however, glad of an opportunity of putting an affront on a man whom they hated and feared, refused, and by their short-sighted policy compelled him to ally himself with Cæsar, when they should have sought in his influence a counterpoise to Cæsar's popularity.

Cæsar promised to obtain for Pompey a ratification of his acts, and Pompey promised Cæsar his support in all his measures. These two men with Crassus formed the first triumvirate.

Cæsar was consul in 59. He carried out his promise to Pompey, and then aided by Pompey passed measures to please the people.

Pompey remained at Rome from 59-49.

While Cæsar was gaining glory in Gaul, Pompey was gradually losing the confidence of all parties at Rome.

The senate hated and feared him, while the people deserted him.

According to an arrangement between the triumvirs Crassus and Pompey were to be consuls for 54. After this, Cæsar's term of office was to be extended five years, *i.e.*, to the end of 49, Pompey was to receive Spain, and Crassus Syria.

Crassus on the conclusion of his term of office went to his province, but fell in battle with the Parthians at Carrhæ, 53.

Thus Pompey and Cæsar were left alone in the struggle for supremacy. Pompey remained at Rome, leaving his lieutenants to govern his province. In 52 Pompey was sole consul. Soon after he became reconciled to the aristocrats and was looked upon as their head. The rest of his history will be found under Cæsar.

1. Pompey and Sulla.
2. Campaign against Sertorius.
3. Consul in 70—breaks with the aristocrats.
4. Gabinian and Manilian laws.
5. He defeats Mithridates.

Campaigns in Syria, Phœnicia and Palestine.

6. Return to Italy and career as a politician.
 7. His position with reference to the parties at Rome.
 8. His alliance with Cæsar and Crassus.
 9. Rivalry of Pompey and Cæsar.
- Civil war.

CÆSAR.

Caius J. Cæsar was born in 100 B.C.

He was closely connected by marriage with the popular party, though his own family were aristocrats. His aunt was married to Marius, while he himself married the daughter of Cinna.

Finding that his life was not safe at Rome he went to Asia, where he remained till Sulla's death, '78.

On his return to Rome he became noted as an orator. He devoted all his energies to winning the favor of the people. He was quæstor in 68, and ædile 65.

In 62 he was prætor. In 61 he went as governor to further Spain.

On his return he became a candidate for the consulship.

This office he held in 59. Before entering upon it, Cæsar with Pompey and Crassus formed the first triumvirate.

While consul, he satisfied Pompey by obtaining the sanction of the senate for Pompey's acts in Asia, and then carried an Agrarian law to please the lower classes.

In 58 Cæsar went to Gaul as Governor. This position he obtained with four legions for five years.

During the following nine years he subdued the whole of Gaul, and twice invaded Britain, and twice crossed the Rhine into Germany.

In 56 another agreement was made between Cæsar, Pompey and Crassus, according to which Cæsar was to

keep his province for five years longer. An estrangement then took place between Cæsar and Pompey. Cæsar's victories had gained for him fresh popularity and influence, and Pompey saw himself becoming the second man in the state.

Pompey openly joined the aristocrats. The object of this party was to deprive Cæsar of his command, and force him to return to Rome as a private man, when they would have formally accused him.

On 1st January, 49, the senate passed a decree that Cæsar should disband his army before a certain day or be declared a public enemy.

Two tribunes put their veto on this resolution, but their opposition was disregarded and they fled to Cæsar's camp.

Cæsar now crossed the Rubicon, which separated his province from Italy. Pompey's troops deserted him, and Cæsar met with little resistance on his southward march. Pompey with the senators withdrew, first to Capua, and as Cæsar drew near, to Brundisium, where he embarked for Greece.

Cæsar first marched against the Pompeian forces in Spain and routed them at Ilerda. He then returned to Rome, where meantime he had been appointed dictator. He resigned this office, but accepted the consulship for 48. At the beginning of 48 Cæsar crossed to Dyrrachium.

The campaign was at first in Pompey's favor; but Cæsar was finally victorious at Pharsalia.

Pompey fled to Egypt, where he was murdered.

When the news of his victory reached Rome, Cæsar was appointed dictator for a year, consul for five years, and tribune for life. He declined the consulship, but entered on the dictatorship.

When Cæsar arrived in Egypt he became involved in the Alexandrine war.

Cæsar remained there nearly a year. He returned to Rome through Syria and Asia Minor, and on his way defeated Pharnaces, son of Mithridates, at Zela.

He reached Rome September, 47, and was appointed consul for the following year. Soon after he left for Africa, where he defeated the Pompeian party at Thapsus in 46.

Cæsar was now the undisputed master of the Roman world; but he used his victory with the greatest moderation. He declared that he would make no difference between Pompeians and Cæsarians.

The dictatorship was conferred on him for ten years, and the censorship for three years. It was now that he introduced his reform in the calendar.

In 45 he went to Spain and defeated the sons of Pompey at Munda.

To reward his followers he increased the number of senators and public magistrates. He meditated great reforms, among them a digest of Roman law, the draining of the Pomptine marsh, the dredging of the harbor of Ostia, etc.

To protect the boundaries of Rome, he resolved upon an expedition against the Parthians.

A special meeting of the senate was to take place on 15th of March, 44, for the purpose of conferring on him the title of king outside of Italy.

A conspiracy had been formed against him, and although he had received many warnings against attending the meeting he disregarded them, and fell by the hands of Brutus and Cassius and other conspirators.

1. His relatives.
2. His political career previous to 59. Quæstor, ædile, prætor, consul.
3. First triumvirate.
4. Cæsar in Gaul, 58-49.
War with Pompey.
Ilerda—dictator. Pharsalia—dictator, consul and tribune.
Alexandrine war—Zela, Thapsus.
Reforms calendar.
Munda.
5. His proposed reforms.
6. His assassination.

AUGUSTUS.

Augustus, the first Roman emperor, was the son of Atia, the daughter of Julia, the sister of J. Cæsar. His original name was C. Octavius, and, after his adoption by Cæsar, C. J. Cæsar, Octavianus. He took part in Cæsar's campaign in Spain in 45. He was then sent to Apollonia to prosecute his studies. On the death of

Cæsar he set out for Rome, accompanied by a few friends, among whom was Agrippa. The state of parties at Rome was most perplexing. Augustus had to contend both against Antony and the republican party. Looking upon Antony as his most dangerous opponent he resolved to crush him first. He accordingly offered his services to the senate.

He was sent, with the title of prætor, along with the consuls Hirtius and Pansa to attack Antony, who was besieging D. Brutus at Mutina. Antony was defeated and fled across the Alps. The death of the consuls gave Augustus command of their troops. The senate now became alarmed, and resolved to prevent Augustus from acquiring further power.

Augustus then marched upon Rome, and forced the senate to appoint him consul. He then marched into the north of Italy, ostensibly against Antony. He met Antony and Lepidus, the governor of Farther Gaul, descending the Alps at the head of seventeen legions.

An arrangement was made by which the power was divided between Augustus, Antony and Lepidus, under the name of triumvirs. This arrangement was to last for five years. They published a proscription, and more than two thousand equites and three hundred senators were put to death, and their property confiscated. Among them was Cicero. Soon afterwards Augustus and Antony crossed the Adriatic and defeated the republican leaders, Brutus and Cassius, at Philippi, 42.

The triumvirs again divided the empire, Augustus receiving Italy and Spain, Lepidus Africa, and Antony all east of the Adriatic.

On his return to Italy Augustus had to wage war with Fulvia and Lucius Antonius.

M. Antony at that time threatened to attack Augustus ; but a peace was made at Brundisium in 40, which was cemented by the marriage of Antony to Octavia, sister of Augustus.

In 39 a peace was concluded between Augustus and Sextus Pompey. The peace was of short duration, and the struggle came to an issue in 36, when Agrippa defeated Pompey, who fled to Asia where he was murdered.

Antony's shameful treatment of his wife, and his connection with Cleopatra excited the anger of Augustus, and lost him the support of the Roman people. War was declared by the senate against Cleopatra in 32.

In 31 Augustus defeated Antony and Cleopatra at Actium. Augustus proceeded to Egypt, where Antony and Cleopatra to avoid falling into his hands committed suicide.

Augustus returned to Rome in 29.

The senate and the people vied with each other in their servility and adulation. In 27 the title of Augustus was conferred upon him, a name which was afterwards borne by all the Roman emperors.

To the title of Augustus was added that of Imperator, which gave him command of all the forces of the empire. He was also given the powers of a tribune for life, by which his person became inviolate, and he had the power of summoning the senate. The people kept their republican forms ; but those only could be elected who were approved of by the emperor.

His chief advisers were Agrippa and Maecenas. The wars waged by Augustus were defensive, that is to defend the boundaries of the empire. He conducted a war against the Cantabri and Astures in Spain in 27.

In 16 he took command of the Roman troops on the Rhine.

Augustus died at Nola, A.D. 14. Both the emperor and his minister, Maecenas, were liberal patrons of literature, and during this period Roman literature produced its most finished works.

1. Relationship to Cæsar.
2. His conduct at the time of Cæsar's death.
3. War about Mutina.
4. Appointed consul—2nd triumvirate, proscription.
5. Philippi.
6. War with M. Antony.
7. Augustus and Sextus Pompey.
8. Augustus, Antony and Cleopatra.
9. Augustus returns from Egypt.
Augustus, imperator, tribune.
10. His government.
Division of power.
Chief advisers.
Foreign policy.
Encouragement of literature.

General Physical Characteristics of Greece.

The country is in its greatest length from north to south, 250 miles; in breadth from east to west, 180. Its area is 21,000 square miles, nearly that of Scotland.

Its coast line is very irregular, and is equal to that of Spain and Portugal together.

No part of Greece is more than 40 miles from the sea.

The country is divided into three distinct parts by the gulfs of Ambrakia and Malia in the north, and the Corinthian and Saronic gulfs in the centre.

Its mountain system is very complex. There are 26 mountain peaks over 2,000 feet in height.

The most important political divisions of Greece are on the east coast, while those of Italy are on the west.

Geography of Greece in Outline.

Boundaries.

North—Macedonia and Illyria.

East—Aegeum mare and Myrtoum mare.

South—Mare Internum.

West—Ionium mare.

Gulfs.

East—Thermaic, Pagasæan, Maliacus, Saronic, Argolic.

South—Laconian, Messenian.

West—Cyparissian, Corinthian, Ambracia.

Mountains.

Cambunian range, north of Thessaly.

Mountain Peaks.

In Thessaly—Olympus, Ossa, Pelion, Othrys.

In Epirus—The Chaonian range.

In Phokis—Mt. Oeta and Parnassus.

In Bœotia—Helicon, Cithæron.

In Attica—Parnes, Pentelicus, Hymettus, Laurium.

On the border of Achaia—Cyllene.

In Laconia—Taygetus.

In Arcadia—Erymanthus.

Rivers.

In Thessaly—Peneus, Spercheus.

In Epirus—Arachthus, Acheron.

In Acarnania—Achelous.

In Bœotia—Asopus.

In Elis—Alpheus.

In Laconia—Eurotas.

Lakes.

In Bœotia—Copais.

In Arcadia—Stymphalus.

In Argolis—Lerna.

In Epirus—Pambotis.

Promontories.

East—Magnesia, Sunium, Scyllæum.

South—Malea, Tænarum, Acritas.

West—Chelonatas, Actium, Acroceraunium.

Divisions.

Northern Greece—Thessaly, Epirus.

Central Greece—Acarnania, Aetolia, Doris, Lokris, Phokis, Bœotia, Attica, Megaris.

Southern Greece—Achaia, Elis, Messenia, Laconia, Argolis, Arcadia, Sicynia, Corinthia.

General Physical Characteristics of Italy.

The country extends 700 miles from north to south, and varies in breadth from 350 miles in the north to an average of 100 miles in the south. Its area is 93,000 square miles.

The coast line of Italy is not nearly so irregular as that of Greece and, although the country is much greater in extent of territory, its sea coast is not so well adapted for navigation..

Its mountain system compared with that of Greece is not complex.

Its rivers are divided into three systems—those of the north, those of the east, and those of the west.

Geography of Italy in Outline.

Boundaries.

North—Alps.

East—Mare Hadriaticum.

South—Mare Internum.

West—Mare Tyrrhenum.

Gulfs.

East—Tergestinus.

South—Tarentinus, Scylleticus.

West—Terinæus, Laus, Pæstanus, Cumanus, Cayetanus, Ligusticus.

Mountain Peaks.

In Etruria—Soracte.

In Sabinum—Sacer.

In Latium—Albanus, Algidus.

In Campania—Massicus, Vesuvius.

In Apulia—Garganus.

Rivers.

Emptying into the Hadria. The Padus with its tributaries, Rubicon, Metaurus, Aufidus, Arnus.

Emptying into the mare Tyrrhenum—Tiberis with its tributaries, Liris, Umbro, Macra.

Lakes.

In Gallia Cisalpina—Verbanus, Larius, Benacus.

In Etruria—Trasimenus.

In Sabinum—Fucinus.

In Latium—Regillus.

In Campania—Avernus.

Capes.

West — Populonium, Circeium, Misenum, Minervæ Prom., Palinurus.

East—Garganus, Iapygium.

South—Lacinium, Herculeum, Leucopetra.

Divisions.

Liguria, Etruria, Latium, Campania, Lucania, Bruttii, Apulia, Picenum, Umbria, Samnium, Sabellian tribes.

Periods of Greek History.

- I. Mythical period.—Events legendary and not of historical importance, from the immigration of the Hellenes to the time of Cylon, *i.e.*, from about 2000 to 624 B.C.

II. 624–500.—The age of tyrants.

Sparta after destroying the power of Messenia and Argos the leading state in Greece.

III. 500–447.—Conflict with Persia. Rise of Athens.

IV. 447–404.—Two confederacies in Greece ; 1st, Peloponnesian ; 2nd, Athenian.

V. 404–371.—Spartan supremacy.

VI. 371–362.—Theban supremacy. Leuktra–Mantineia.

VII. 362–338.—Struggles between the various states of Greece, no state holding the supremacy.

Sacred and social wars.

Rise of Macedonia.

The history of Greece is the history of its cities.

Patriotism to the Greek meant loyalty to his native town.

Of these cities Athens was the chief, and the history of Greece was largely the history of Athens.

Outline of Athenian History.

1068.—Monarchy abolished.

752 and 683.—Changes in the archonship.

624.—Attempt of Cylon to overthrow the power of oligarchs and establish tyranny.

621.—Drako's legislation.

596.—Solon draws up his constitution.

560–510.—Rule of the Peisistratidæ.

510.—Cleisthenes reforms the constitution.

510–477.—Struggle with Persia.

- 477-457.—Athenian or Delian confederacy.
457-432.—Athenian empire, Periclean age.
432-404.—Peloponnesian war.
395-387.—Corinthian war.
374-371.—Athens the ally of Thebes.
369-362.—Athens in alliance with Sparta.
357-355.—Social war.
352.—First Philippic.
347.—Destruction of Olynthus.
346.—Peace of Philokrates.
340.—Philip besieges Byzantium.
338.—Battle of Chæroneia. Athens loses her freedom.
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Periods of Roman History.

I. 753-509.—Kingly rule.

From the foundation of the city to the expulsion of the Tarquins.

This period is largely mythical and legendary in character.

Rome founds her political and religious institutions.

The two orders are established.

II. 509-451.—From the expulsion of the kings to the Decemvirate.

Oligarchical or Patrician rule at Rome.

The Plebs begin to make their importance felt.

First secession and first Agrarian law.

III. 451–367.—From the Decemvirate to the Licinian rogations.

Climax of struggle between the two orders.

IV. 367–272.—From the Licinian rogations to the conquest of Italy.

Wars with the Latins, Samnites and Pyrrhus.

V. 272–202.—From the war with Pyrrhus to end of 2nd Punic war.

Rome becomes mistress of all the countries in the western Mediterranean.

VI. 202–146.—From the close of the 2nd Punic war to the destruction of Corinth.

Rome mistress in the eastern Mediterranean.

VII. 146–88.—From the destruction of Corinth to the time of Sulla.

Social and political discontent in Italy.

Struggles of the Gracchi.

Civil war.

VIII. 88–29.—Struggle between leading men for the mastery of Rome. Marius, Sulla, Pompey, Cæsar, Antony, Augustus.

Battles of Pharsalus, Philippi, Actium.

Geographical Names in Greek History.

Abydos.—Town of the Troad on the Hælespont, nearly opposite to Sestus.

Aegina.—A rocky island in the Saronic gulf, lying opposite to Athens, colonized first by Achæans, and afterwards by the Dorians.

Aegospotami.—A river in the Thracian Chersonese, opposite to Lampsacus.

Actium.—Cape and town of Acarnania, on the gulf of Ambracia.

Ambracia.—Territory and gulf between Acarnania and Epirus, also the name of a city in that district founded by Corinth.

Amphipolis.—Town of Thrace on the Strymon, three miles from the sea. After several unsuccessful attempts the Athenians founded a settlement there in 437. It was one of the most important of the Athenian possessions.

Amphissa.—Town of Locri Ozolæ on the gulf of Corinth, seven miles from Delphi. It was destroyed in 338, but afterwards rebuilt.

Athos.—Mountainous Peninsula of Chalcidice, terminating in a rocky headland 6,000 feet in height.

Byzantium.—A Megarian colony on the Bosphorus. It became subject to Persia, but was set free by Pausanias, 378. It was alternately in the hands of the Athenians and Spartans during the Peloponnesian war. The city was almost destroyed by Severus, 196 A.D., but was rebuilt by Constantine.

Cambunian Mountains.—Mountains separating Thrace from Thessaly. Eastern part of Pindus range.

Chæroneia.—Town in Bœotia on the Cephissus, near the borders of Phocis. It is noted as the scene of a victory of the Bœotians over the Athenians, 447, and of Philip over the Greeks, 338.

Chalcedon.—Greek town in Bithynia, at the entrance to the Propontis, opposite Byzantium. It was founded

by the Megarians, 685. It fell under the sway of the Persians. It was recovered by the Athenians. It was finally destroyed by the Turks.

Dekeleia.—Town in the north-west of Attica, seized by the Spartans, 413.

Delion. — Town of Bœotia, in the territory of Tanagra. It was used by the Athenians during the Peloponnesian war as a base of operations, and they were defeated there, 424.

Delos.—Central island of the Cyclades. It was sacred to Apollo.

Delphi.—A small town at the foot of Mt. Parnassus. It was the principal seat of Apollo's worship. There were celebrated the Pythian games, and the Amphictyonic council held its meetings in the spring at Delphi. It was plundered of its treasures by the Phocians, and also by Brennus, and by Sulla.

Elatea.—The most important town of Phocis, next to Delphi, situated in an important pass leading from Thessaly into Bœotia.

Eleusis.—Town of Attica, north-west of Athens, on the frontiers of Megara.

Ephesos.—City, situated at the mouth of Cayster. It was the chief of the twelve Ionian cities. North-east of the city was the celebrated temple of Diana.

Epidamnus.—Called by the Romans Dyrrachium, was situated on a peninsula of Illyria.

Haliartus.—Town of Bœotia, south of Lake Copais. It was destroyed by the Persians 480, but was rebuilt. It was destroyed by the Romans because it had aided Perseus.

Imbros.—An island off the coast of Thrace, north-east of Lemnos and south-east of Samothrace.

Ithome.—A Messenian town on a hill of the same name. It was taken by the Spartans 723, after an heroic defence by Aristodemus, and again in 455.

Katana.—An important town on the east coast of Sicily. It was founded by Naxians, 730. In 476 it was conquered by Syracuse.

Kephallenia or Cephallenia.—The largest island in the Ionian sea, west of Ithaca. It is one of the seven Ionian isles.

Klazomenæ or Clazomenæ.—One of the twelve Ionian cities on the gulf of Smyrna. It was one of the weak members of the confederacy.

Knidus or Cnidus.—The chief city of the Dorian Hexapolis, situated on the coast of Caria.

Korkyra or Corcyra.—One of the seven Ionian isles, is situated west of Epirus. It was colonized by the Corinthians 700 B.C. It soon became powerful, and was a dangerous rival to Corinth in the Ionian and Adriatic seas. The first naval battle on record took place between Korkyra and Corinth, 644. It founded numerous colonies, among them Epidamnus, and Apollonia. The dispute between Korkyra and Corinth, 434, was the immediate cause of the Peloponnesian war.

Krissa or Crissa and Cirrha.—Regarded by some writers as the same, but probably Cirrha was the port of Krissa. These towns, being situated in Phokis on the road to Delphi, imposed tribute on travellers. In consequence the Amphietyons declared war against them and destroyed them. Cirrha was afterwards rebuilt,

and was the port of Delphi. The land round about it was declared sacred, and its cultivation by Amphissa led the Amphictyons, in the time of Philip, to declare war against Amphissa.

Kunaxa or Cunaxa.—Town of Babylonia on the Euphrates, the scene of a battle in 401.

Kyklades or Cyclades.—According to Strabo they were twelve in number. The chief were Delos, Naxos, Paros, Andros.

Kynoscephelæ or Cynoscephelæ.—Two hills near Scotussa in Thessaly, noted for the victory of Flaminius, 197.

Kyprus or Cyprus.—Large island south of Cilicia. It was first colonized by Phœnicians, but Greek settlers went there shortly after the Trojan war.

Kyrene or Cyrene.—Town of Cyrenaica (part of Tripoli) in northern Africa.

Kythera or Cythera.—A mountainous island southwest of Laconia, colonized by Phœnicians, then by Argives, and finally the Lacedæmonians took possession.

Kyzicus or Cyzicus.—Town, situated on an island of the same name in the Propontis, one of the oldest and most famous of the Greek cities. After varying fortunes it was ultimately destroyed by the Arabs, 675.

Lampsacus.—An important town of Mysia on the Hellespont, possessing an excellent harbor.

Larissa.—An important town on the Peneius, and after the time of Constantine the capital of Thessaly.

Laurium.—A mountain in the south of Attica noted for its rich silver mines, at one time so productive that every Athenian citizen was given ten drachmas. On the

advice of Themistocles, 490, the money was used to equip a fleet. In the time of Xenophon they yielded 100 talents, but gradually decreased.

Lemnos.—One of the largest islands of the Aegæan, situated midway between Mt. Athos and the Hellespont. It was sacred to Hephæstus.

Leontini.—Town of Sicily, north-west of Syracuse, five miles from the sea, settled by Chalcidians from Naxos, 730. It soon became subject to Syracuse and shared its fortunes.

Leuktra.—A small town on the road from Plataea to Thespiæ, noted for the defeat of Cleombrotus 371.

Mæander.—River, which, rising in Phrygia, flows west through Caria into the Aegean.

Mantineæ.—One of the oldest and most important towns of Arcadia. Till Megalopolis was founded it exercised supremacy over the other Arcadian towns. During the Peloponnesian war it was destroyed. After Leuktra it gained its independence. It was famous as the scene of the last victory of Epaminondas.

Marathon.—A plain in the east of Attica, twenty-six miles from the city by one road and twenty-two by another. It extended along the sea a distance of six miles, and varied in breadth from a mile and a half to three miles.

Megalopolis.—City of Arcadia, on the border of Messenia. It was founded after Leuktra by the people of thirty-eight villages moving thither.

Melos.—An island of the Cyclades, the most westerly of the group, situated 70 miles north of Crete and 65

miles east of the Peloponnesus. The island was ravaged by the Athenians in 416.

Memphis.—City of Egypt on the Nile. After the destruction of Thebes it was the capital of Egypt. It was a place of great commercial importance till 526, when it was partially destroyed by Cambyses. It was finally destroyed by the Arabs in the 7th century.

Mesembria.—An important town on the Euxine, on the frontiers of Thrace and Mœsia.

Mitylene.—The chief city of Lesbos, on the east coast. It founded settlements in Mysia and Thrace. In 428 it revolted from Athens.

Mykale.—Mountain at the mouth of the Mæander. It and the island of Samos overlap, and are separated by a strait three-fourths of a mile wide. It is noted for the victory of the Greeks, 479.

Naupactus.—Town in south-west of Locri Ozolæ, very strongly fortified and possessing the best harbor on the north of the Corinthian gulf. Given by the Athenians to the Messenians 455.

Naxos.—The largest island of the Cyclades, situated midway between Greece and Asia Minor. It was conquered by Peisistratus 501. It was conquered by the Persians 490, but achieved its independence.

Nemea.—Valley between Cleonæ and Phliasia, in Argolis. The Nemean games were held yearly.

Olympus.—The eastern part of the Cambunian Mts. The abode of the gods.

Olympia.—A small plain of Elis, north of the Alpheus. The games were held every four years.

Olynthus.—The most important Greek town on the coast of Macedonia. It was situated on the Toronaic gulf. After the Peloponnesian war it became the head of a league. It was captured by the Spartans, but gained its independence after Leuktra. It was destroyed by Philip 347.

Parnassus.—A mountain a few miles north of Delphi. It was sacred to Apollo and the muses.

Peiræus.—The chief of the three ports of Athens. It was five miles south-east of the city. It was first used on the advice of Themistocles. The port formerly used was Phalerum.

Pella.—An old town of Macedonia, of little importance until Philip made it his capital.

Perinthus.—An important town on the Propontis. At the time of Philip's attack it was more powerful than Byzantium.

Plataea.—Town of Bœotia, on the northern slope of Cithæron, near the source of the Asopus.

Pydna.—A Greek town on the Macedonian coast. It fell under the power of Macedon. It is noted for the victory of Paulus over Perseus, 168.

Salamis.—West of Attica. The island incloses the bay of Eleusis on the south. In 620 a struggle for its possession took place between Athens and Megara.

Samos.—One of the chief of the Ionian islands, in the Icarian sea.

Sardes.—The capital of the Lydian empire, situated in the valley of the Hermus, at the foot of Mt. Tmolus.

Sestos.—City of the Thracian Chersonese, opposite to

Abydos. It is famous on account of the story of Leander, and as the place where Xerxes crossed into Europe.

Skyros.—An island of the Sporades east of Eubœa, famous as the place of Achilles' concealment.

Selinus.—An important Dorian town on the south-west coast of Sicily.

Taygetus.—A lofty range of mountains, of a wild and savage character, separating Laconia from Messenia.

Sphakteria.—An island about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, stretching in front of the harbor of Pylos.

Sporades.—A group of islands off the coast of Crete and Asia Minor, so called in contrast to the Cyclades. They were not clearly defined.

Thermopylæ.—A narrow pass leading from Thessaly into Lokris.

Trapezus.—A Greek colony of Sinope in Pontus. During the middle ages it was the capital of the Greek kingdom of Trebizond. Next to Odessa it is the chief port on the Black sea.

Zacynthus.—An island in the Ionian sea off the coast of Elis. It was inhabited by Greeks from very early times. It is called by Homer "wooded Zacynthus."

Geographical Names in Roman History.

Actium.—See Greek geography. Noted for victory of Augustus, 31.

Agrirentum.—Town on south coast of Sicily, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the sea. Till its destruction by the Carthaginians,

405, it was one of the most wealthy and populous cities of the ancient world. It finally fell into the hands of the Romans.

Algidus.—Mountain and town of the Aequi south-east of Rome.

Allia.—River rising near Crustumerium, 11 miles from Rome, falls into the Tiber six miles from the city. Owing to the defeat of the Romans there in 390, the 16th day of July, the dies Alliensis was unlucky.

Aquæ Sextiæ.—A Roman colony a few miles from Massilia, noted for the defeat of the Teutons, 103.

Artaxata.—Capital of Greater Armenia, on the Araxes, founded on the advice of Hannibal. Famous for victory of Lucullus, 69.

Asculum.—Two towns of that name, the one in Picenum, the other in Apulia. The latter was noted for the victory of Pyrrhus, 279.

Bæcula.—Town in south of Spain, north-east of Corduba, noted for Roman victory over Hasdrubal, 209.

Beneventum.—Town of Samnium on the Appian way. The old name was Malventum. In 268 the Romans sent a colony there and called it Beneventum. It was noted for the defeat of Pyrrhus, 275.

Boians.—A Gallic tribe between the Padus and the Apennines.

Campi Raudii.—Plain north-west of Vercellæ.

Cannæ.—Town of Apulia, near the Aufidus, noted for the defeat of the Romans, 216.

Capua.—Chief city of Campania after the fall of Cumæ. It was colonized by the Etruscans twenty years

before the founding of Rome, and was soon the largest, wealthiest and most luxurious city in Southern Italy. In 420 it was conquered by the Samnites. When it was again attacked by the Samnites of the Highlands in 343 it placed itself under the protection of Rome.

Carrhæ.—The ancient Haran, a city of Mesopotamia, noted for the defeat of Crassus, 53.

Casilinum.—Town of Campania on the Volturnus. Situated on the site of the modern Capua.

Caudium.—Town of Samnium on the road from Capua to Beneventum. Near it are the Caudine forks, noted for the defeat of the Romans, 321.

Clupea.—Town on peninsula of same name, north-east of Carthage. Founded by Agathocles under the name of Aspis, taken by the Romans 246, and called Clypea or Clupea.

Clusium.—The most important of the twelve cities of Etruria, situated on an eminence near the Clanis.

Cremera.—Small river of Etruria, falling into the Tiber a few miles from Rome. Noted for the destruction of the Fabii.

Cremona.—Roman colony founded at the confluence of the Addua and the Padus, 219, together with Placentia as an outpost against the Gauls.

Cynoscephelæ.—See Greek geography under K.

Cyzicus.—See Greek geography.

Dyrrachium.—See Greek geography under Epidamnus.

Ecnomus.—Promontory near Gela, noted for a Roman victory, 256.

Fidenæ.—Town in the Sabine district, five miles north-east of Rome, probably colonized by the Etruscan city of Veii. Often at war with Rome. Destroyed 437.

Gaurus.—Mountain situated near Cumæ and Neapolis. Noted for Roman victory, 340.

Italica.—Name given by the allies to Corfinium, a city of the Peligni, which they intended to make the new capital of Italy.

Lautulæ.—Village of the Volsci, noted for Roman defeat.

Lavinium.—Town founded by Aeneas in honor of his wife, two miles from the sea, and six north-east of Laurentum.

Magnesia.—City in the north-east of Lydia, foot of Mount Sipylus. Noted for the victory of L. Scipio, 190.

Messana.—An ancient town in north-east of Sicily. It was destroyed by the Carthaginians 396, but rebuilt by Dionysius of Syracuse. The conduct of the Mamertines stationed there was the immediate cause of the 1st Punic war.

Massilia.—A town of Southern Gaul, founded in 600 by Greeks from Asia Minor. The Carthaginians soon became jealous of its trade, but they were defeated by the Massilians, who formed an alliance with Rome.

Metaurus.—A river of Umbria, noted for the defeat of Hasdrubal, 207.

Mylæ.—Town on peninsula in the eastern part of the north coast of Sicily, founded by Messana. It is noted for the victory of Duilius, 260, and Agrippa, 36.

Neapolis.—Colony of Cumæ, on the western slope of Vesuvius. It was divided into two parts, Neapolis and Palæopolis. Of historical importance in connection with the wars between Rome and Samnium.

Nola.—Town of Campania, 21 miles south-east of Capua.

Numantia.—Chief town of the Celtiberians near the Durius, taken by the Romans, 133, after a siege of ten years.

Ostia.—Port of Rome, situated on the left bank of the Tiber, 16 miles from the city. It was built by Ancus Marcius. It was destroyed by Marius. It was afterwards rebuilt, but after a new port was built by Claudius on the right bank it declined in importance.

Panormus.—City founded by Phœnicians in north-west of Sicily, captured by the Romans, 254.

Pergamus.—City situated in south of Mysia, afterwards the capital of the Roman province of Asia.

Perusia.—City in the east of Etruria, between the Tiber and Trasimene, noted for the siege in 40.

Pharsalus.—Town south of Scotussa. Noted for Pompey's defeat, 48.

Philippi.—Celebrated town of Macedonia near the Strymon, formerly called Crenides. Noted for the defeat of the Republicans, 42.

Pistoria.—Small town in north of Etruria, noted for Catiline's defeat.

Placentia.—Town south of the Padus.

Pydna.—See Greek geography.

Regillus.—Lake of Latium between Rome and Mount Algidus, noted for the defeat of Latins, 497.

Sacer.—Mountain two miles from Rome, noted for the secessions of 495, 449.

Saguntum.—Old Greek town on the east coast of Spain. Its siege by Hannibal, 219, formed the prelude to the 2nd Punic war.

Sentinum.—Town of Umbria, noted for a Roman victory, 295.

Siris.—Small river of Lucania flowing into the gulf of Tarentum.

Syracuse.—One of the most important cities of the ancient world, situated on the south-east coast of Sicily. At the height of its power its population was 500,000.

Tarentum.—Greek city on the west coast of Calabria, founded by Spartans, 708.

Thapsus.—City on east coast of Africa. The scene of Cæsar's victory, 46.

Thermopylæ.—See Greek geography.

Thurii.—Greek city in Lucania founded 443, not far from the site of the old town of Sybaris, which had been destroyed 60 years before.

Ticinus.—River draining lake Verbanus, and flowing into the Padus from the north.

Trasimenus.—Lake of Etruria, noted for Hannibal's victory, 217.

Trebia.—River flowing north into the Padus.

Veii.—On the Cremera in Southern Etruria. One of the twelve cities and apparently the most powerful. It was destroyed 396.

Venusia.—City on the borders of Lucania and Apulia. The birth-place of Horace.

Vesuvius.—Mountain between Cumæ and Neapolis.

Zama.—Town of Numidia, on the borders of Africa Propria, strongly fortified, the residence of Juba, noted for the battle fought there 202.

Zela.—Town of Pontus, noted for Caesar's victory, 47.

Greek Chronology.

The most important dates are indicated by the asterisk.

SEMI-HISTORICAL, 2000–621 B.C.

2000. Emigration of Greeks into Hellas.

1194. Trojan expedition.

*1184. Fall of Troy.

1104. Migration of the Dorians.

*1068. Abolition of kingly power at Athens.

*884. Establishment of Spartan institutions.

752. Limitation of Archonship at Athens to ten years.

743–724. First Messenian war.

683. Archonship limited to one year and nine appointed.

684–668. Second Messenian war.

*621. Laws of Drako.

620. Attempt of Kylon to seize government at Athens.

*594. Institutions of Solon.

RULES OF TYRANTS, 650–500.

*560. Peisistratus obtains the tyranny.

546. Lydians and Ionians conquered by Cyrus.

*527. Death of Peisistratus.

*510. Overthrow of the Peisistratidæ and triumph of Alkmæonidæ under Kleisthenes or Cleisthenes.

506–456. War with Aegina.

499. Rebellion of Ionians under Aristagoras. Help sent from Athens.

494. Ionians finally subdued.

STRUGGLE WITH PERSIA, 492–477.

492. First expedition against Greece under Mardonius.

*490. Second expedition under Datis and Artaphernes. Marathon.

*480. Third expedition under Xerxes and Mardonius. Thermopylæ. Salamis.

*479. Platæa and Mykale.

TWO CONFEDERACIES IN GREECE, 477–432.

*477. Confederacy of Delos.

464. Rebellion of Messenians.

456. War between Athens and Corinth, Bœotia and Aegina.

*450. Five years truce.

448. War between Delphians and Phocians.

445. Rising of Eubœa and Megara against Athens.

*440. Expedition against Samos, reduction of island and consolidation of Athenian Empire: 30 years truce.

436. Appeals of Epidamnus to Corcyra.

433. Surrender of Epidamnus. Alliance between Athens and Corcyra.

PELOPONNESIAN WAR, 432-404.

*432. Defeat of Corinthians at Sybota by Korkyraians aided by Athenians. Embassy to Sparta from Potidæa. Congress at Sparta.

431. First invasion of Attica.

430. Outbreak of plague.

429. Surrender of Potidæa. Spartans invest Plataea. Death of Perikles. Successes of Athenian admiral Phormion.

428. Revolt of Lesbos.

427. Lesbos reduced. Plataea surrenders. Embassy arrives at Athens from Leontini.

*425. Athenians occupy Pylos.

424. Athenians successful in Peloponnesus. They take Cythera. Expedition of Brasidas to Thrace. Athenians defeated at Delion.

423. Truce for a year in order to arrange for a peace.

422. Kleon sent to Thrace. Battle of Amphipolis.

*421. Peace of Nikias. 50 years peace.

420. Defensive alliance of Athens with Argos, Elis, Mantinea.

418. Spartans invade Argos. Defeat of Argives at Mantinea.

*415. Arrival of embassy from Egesta. Athenians fit out an expedition under Alkibiades, Lysimachos, Nikias.

414. Athens successful at first, but tide turned by arrival of Gylippos.

*413. Beginning of war about Dekeleia. Destruction of Athenian forces in Sicily.

412. Treaty between Sparta and Persia. Alkibiades forced to leave Sparta.

*411. Thrasyboulos takes Alkibiades to Samos, where he is elected strategos.

408. Athens retakes Byzantium, Chalcedon.

*407. Return of Alkibiades to Athens. His fleet under Antiochus defeated. Alkibiades deprived of his command.

406. Athenians win a victory at Arginusæ.

*405. Athenians defeated by Lysander at Aegospotami.

*404. Blockade and capture of Athens.

SUPREMACY OF SPARTA, 404-371.

*404-403. Thirty tyrants at Athens, overthrown in 403 by Thrasyboulos.

401. Expedition of 10,000.

399. They return and enter service of Thimbron.

399. Death of Sokrates.

397. Peace of Derkyllidas.

396. Agesilaus goes to Asia Minor and defeats Persians at Sardes.

*394. Agesilaus returns to Greece and defeats allies at Coroneia and Nemea.

392. Fall of Spartan maritime supremacy before attacks of Konon and Pharnabazus.

390. Death of Thrasyboulos.

*387. Peace of Antalkidas.

384. Confederacy of Olynthus and march of Spartans under Eudamidas and Phœbidas.

379. Surrender of Olynthus.

*378-362. Theban war.

373. Sparta and Athens renew peace of Antalkidas.

*371. Leuktra.

THEBAN SUPREMACY, 371-362.

369. First invasion of Peloponnesus.

368. Second invasion. Outbreak of war between Thebes and Thessaly.

365. War between Elis and Arkadia.

*362. Mantinea.

A STRUGGLE OF GREEKS WITH GREEKS.

*359. Philip becomes king of Macedonia.

356. He takes Amphipolis, Pydna and Potidæa from Athens.

352. He captures Methone.

*357-355. Social War between Athens and her allies.

*355-346. Sacred War between Amphiktyons and Phokis.

349. Philip attacks the cities of the Chalcid.

*346. Philip invited by Thebes, invades and overthrows Phokis.

*340. He attacks Byzantium and Perinthus. They are relieved by Athens.

339. War declared against Amphissa by Amphiktyons. Philip appointed commander.

*338. Chæroneia.

337. Congress at Corinth.

336. Assassination of Philip.

Roman Chronology.

SEMI-HISTORICAL, DATES UNCERTAIN—KINGLY RULE—
753-509.

*753. Foundation of Rome on the Palatine.

753-716. Reign of Romulus. Founding of political institutions. Settlement of Sabines on Capitoline and Quirinal.

716–673. Numa. Appointment of Flamines. Vestal Virgins. Pontiffs and Augurs.

673–640. Tullus Hostilius. Wars with Latins. Veii. Fidenæ. Destruction of Alba Longa.

640–616. Ancus Marcius. Removed the conquered Latins to Aventine. Beginning of Plebs. Extension of city. Foundation of Ostia.

616–578. Tarquinius Priscus. Greatness of Roman monarchy. Great public works. He conquers Sabines and Latins. Senate increased to 300.

578–534. Servius Tullius surrounds city with a wall. New constitution. Rise of Comitia Centuriata. Institution of 30 Plebeian tribes.

536–509. Tarquinius Superbus. Abrogation of Servian constitution. He becomes ruler of Latium. He attacks the Volsci, but is at last expelled.

ROME AND THE LATIN TRIBES—PATRICIANS AND PLEBEIANS—509–457.

*509. Appointment of consuls, Rex. Sacrificulus, quæstores aerarii. War with Porsena.

501. War with Latins. T. Lartius first dictator.

*498. Regillus.

*495. First secession. Institution of tribunes and Aediles Plebis.

493. Treaty with Latins. War with Volsci, and capture of Corioli.

489. Volsci led by Marcius Coriolanus attack Rome.

*486. Agrarian law of Cassius. Trial, condemnation and death.

477. War with Veii. Power of Fabii. Wars with Aequi and Volsci.

*471. Laws of Publilius Volero.

458. Quinctius Cincinnatus dictator. Defeat of Aequi at Algidus.

*462. Demand of Arsa for written laws.

457. Increase of tribunes from five to 10.

*454. Bill of Arsa becomes law.

PLEBEIANS OBTAIN EQUAL POWER WITH PATRICIANS,
451-367

*451. Appointment of Decemviri.

*449. Second secession of Plebs. Deposition of Decemviri.

*445. Law of Canuleius. Appointment of military tribunes with consular power.

443. Appointment of censors.

440. Famine at Rome. First praefect annonæ appointed. Sp. Mælius.

426. Destruction of Fidenæ.

406-396. Siege of Veii.

391. Exile of Camillus.

*390. Allia.

384. M. Manlius.

*376-367. Licinian laws.

ROME BECOMES MISTRESS OF ITALY, 367-272.

367. Appointment of Prætors.

358-356. Fresh Gallic attacks. First Plebeian dictator.

351. First Plebeian censor.

*343-340. War with Samnites. Mt. Gaurus.

*340-338. War with Latins. Vesuvius.

*339. Laws of Philo.

337. Prætorship opened to Plebs.

*338. Subjugation of Latins and Volsci.

*326. Second Samnite war over the quarrel about Fregallæ.

326-321. War goes on against Samnites.

*321. Caudine Forks.

319. Truce for two years.

316. Samnites renew war.

314. Victory over Samnites and subjugation of Campania.

311. Etruscans declare war against Rome, but they and Samnites are defeated.

311-305. Samnites meet with great defeats and Bovianum, their capital, is stormed.

*304. Peace with Samnites. Their allies are defeated.

*298. Third Samnite war.

298-295. Samnites defeated in Lucania and Samnium.

*295. Battle of Sentinum in Umbria. Perusia in Etruria.

*290. Samnites defeated on all sides. Sue for peace.

282. Tarentum sends an invitation to Pyrrhus.

*281. Pyrrhus lands and defeats the Romans at Siris.

279. He defeats them at Asculum.

278. He makes a truce with Rome.

*278-275. Pyrrhus wars against the Carthaginians in Sicily.

*275. Returns and is defeated at Beneventum.

ROME CONQUERS THE COUNTRIES OF THE WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN, 272-202.

268. Samnites rise against Rome and are defeated. Supremacy of Rome in Italy.

*264. Beginning of first Punic war. Capture of Messana.

*262. Capture of Agrigentum.

261. Carthaginians ravage Sicily.

*260. Mylæ.

259. Romans attack Corsica and Sardinia.

*256. Expedition under Regulus and Manlius to Africa.

255. Regulus defeated and taken prisoner. Victory and destruction of Roman fleet.

254. Romans build another fleet and take Panormus.

253. Romans ravage coasts of Africa, but lose their fleet in a storm.

250. Metellus defeats Carthaginians at Panormus and Carthage sues for peace as she has now lost all possessions in Sicily except Lilybæum and Drepana.

249. Romans under Appius Claudius defeated at Drepana.

*247. Hamilcar takes command of Carthaginians.

*241. Victory of Catulus at Aegatian Isles. Peace between Carthage and Rome.

*238. Rome carries on war with Boii and Ligurians. Conclusion of war between Carthage and her allies. Rome seizes Corsica and Sardinia. Hamilcar goes to Spain.

229. War with Illyrian pirates. Hamilcar died in battle.

*225. Advance of Gauls southward. They are defeated at Telamon.

223. Flaminius crosses Padus and defeats Insubres.

222. Insubres defeated by Marcellus at Clastidium. Rome gains Lombardy.

*221. Hannibal succeeds Hasdrubal in Spain.

219. Second Illyrian war against Demetrius of Pharos brought to a close by Aemilius Paulus. Hannibal takes Saguntum.

*218. Beginning of Second Punic war. Hannibal, leaving New Carthage, reaches Italy in five months. He defeats the Romans at Ticinus and Trebia, and winters in Liguria,

217. Defeat of Flaminius at Trasimene. Fabius Max. appointed dictator. Hannibal winters in Apulia.

*216. Cannæ. Death of Hiero. Hannibal winters in Capua. Treaty between Philip and Hannibal.

215. Hannibal meets with reverses at Nola and Beneventum.

214. Claudius Marcellus sent to Sicily.

*212. Marcellus captures Syracuse. Defeat and death of the two Scipios in Spain.

211. Romans recapture Capua. Hannibal takes Tarentum. P. Cornelius Scipio goes to Spain.

*209. Romans retake Tarentum. Scipio defeats Hasdrubal at Bæcula.

*207. Metaurus.

205. Scipio returns to Rome and is elected consul. Peace between Romans and Philip.

*204. Scipio crosses to Africa.

*202. Zama.

ROME CONQUERS THE EAST, 202-146.

200. War between Romans and Philip renewed.

197. Philip defeated at Cynoscephelæ.

196. Defeat of Insubres and Boii. Hannibal forced to take refuge with Antiochus.

*191. War with Antiochus. Acilius Glabrio defeats him at Thermopylæ.

190. Scipio defeats Antiochus at Magnesia.

200-181. Wars with Gauls.

181-179. War with Spain.

*179. Treaty between Spaniards and Gracchus.

179. Death of Philip of Macedon.

*171-168. War with Perseus.

168. Pydna.

*149-148. Rising in Macedonia in favor of Andriscus.
He is defeated at Pydna.

*149. Third war with Carthage.

147. Destruction of Carthage.

147. War between Romans and Achæan league.

*146. Battle at Isthmus and destruction of Corinth.

SOCIAL DISCONTENT AND CIVIL WAR, 146-88.

*148-137. War with Lusitanians under Viriathus.

*143-133. War with Celtiberians and siege of Numantia.

133. Attalus wills Pergamus to the Romans. T. Gracchus.

130. War between Romans and Aristonicus.

*123. C. Gracchus comes forward.

121. Death of Gracchus.

118. Death of Micipsa.

117. Restoration of Adherbal.

*113. Cimbri and Teutons defeat Romans at Noreia.

112. Jugurtha kills Adherbal.

111. Jugurthine war.

110. Murder of Massiva. Jugurtha at Rome.

*109. Jugurtha victorious. Metellus in Africa. Cimbri defeat Silanus.

109. Jugurtha defeated.

*107. Marius succeeds Metellus. Cassius defeated by Cimbri.

106. Capture of Jugurtha by Sulla.

105. Cimbri victorious.

*102. Marius defeats Teutons at Aquæ Sextiæ. Servile war in Sicily.

*101. Marius defeats Cimbri at Campi Raudii.

91. Livius tries to give franchise to Italians and is slain.

*90. Social war. Lex. Julia gives franchise to Latins.

89. Romans successful. Confederate towns enfranchised and eight new tribes formed.

*88. End of Social war. Civil war between Marius and Sulla. Marius receives command against Mithridates. Sulla expelled from Rome by Marius and marches upon Rome. Proscription.

STRUGGLE BETWEEN LEADING MEN, 88-29.

87. Cinna and Marius take Rome. Sulla in Greece.

86. Sulla takes Athens, defeats Archelaus. Fimbria sent out to Asia.

85. Fimbria successful.

84. Death of Fimbria.

83. Civil war. Sertorius goes to Spain. Lucullus fights against Mithridates.

*82. Capture of Præneste. Death of younger Marius. Proscription.

*78. Death of Sulla. Sertorius in Spain.

77. Fight at Mulvian Bridge.

74. Mithridates victorious at Chalcedon, but Lucullus relieves Cyzicus.

*73. War against Spartacus.

72. Murder of Sertorius. Spartacus defeats two consuls.

71. Spartacus defeated by Crassus and Pompey.

69. Lucullus defeats Tigranes at Tigranocerta.

68. Lucullus victorious at Artaxata.

*67. Mutiny against Lucullus. War against pirates ended by Pompey.

66. Pompey succeeds Lucullus. Peace with Tigranes.

*65. Catiline's first conspiracy.

63. Cicero crushed Catiline's second conspiracy. Pompey conquers Palestine.

*60. Cæsar victorious in Spain. First triumvirate.

58. Cæsar goes to Gaul. Cicero banished.

56. Meeting of Cæsar, Pompey and Crassus at Luca.

*55. Invasion of Britain.

54. Crassus marches against Parthians.

53. Defeat of Crassus at Carrhæ.

49. Civil war between Cæsar and Pompey. Cæsar marches into Italy, pursues Pompey to Brundisium, who crosses to Greece.

48. Pharsalia. Pompey's death in Egypt. Alexandrine war.

*47. Cæsar conquers Pharnaces at Zela. Goes to Africa against Pompeians.

46. Pompeians defeated at Thapsus.

45. Pompeians defeated at Munda.

*44. Murder of Cæsar. Octavianus comes to Rome. Antony declared public enemy.

43. Siege of Mutina. Antony defeated. Second Triumvirate. Proscription. Cicero among proscribed.

*42. Battle of Philippi.

41. Antonius and Fulvia, brother and wife of Triumvir, are besieged in Perusia.

40. Capture of Perusia.

39. Defeat of Parthians.

37. Antony comes to Italy. Triumvirate renewed for five years.

*36. Defeat of S. Pompey. Lepidus deprived of his province.

32. War declared against Antony.

*31. Battle of Actium.

REIGN OF AUGUSTUS, 29-13.

- *27. Octavianus called Augustus.
 - 25. Augustus subdues Cantabri.
 - 16. Defeat of Lollius by Germans.
 - 16-3. Wars in Germany.
 - 1-7. Wars in Germany renewed.
 - *9. Defeat of Varus by Germans.
 - *14. Death of Augustus.
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Greek Antiquities.

[Some remarks on the Public Assemblies and Public Magistrates at Athens, Sparta and Rome, from Baird's Manual.]

INHABITANTS OF ATTICA.

The inhabitants of Attica were divided into three classes:

1. Freemen.
2. Foreigners settled in the country.
3. Slaves.

INHABITANTS OF SPARTA.

The inhabitants of Sparta were divided into two classes:

1. Spartans and Perioeci, town and provincial freemen.
2. Helots, slaves.

MAGISTRATES.

The form of government at Athens was, as in many states, frequently changed : it began with *Monarchy*, and, having passed through a *Dynasty* (in which the power was confined to one family) and *Aristocracy*, ended in *Democracy*. *Theseus* may be called the first king, and *Codrus* the last, after whom (B. C. 1045) the Athenians elected the *Archons*, who were the chief magistrates at Athens, *nine* in number ; their power was originally for life, but was afterwards limited to ten years, latterly to one. The names and offices of these magistrates were distinct : the President was styled *The Archon* or Eponymus, from the year being called after and registered in his name ; the second was called the *King Archon* ; the third, *Polemarchus*, or commander-in-chief ; and the remaining six *Thesmothetai*, or legislators.

FUNCTIONS OF THE ARCHONS.

The functions of The Archons were :

1. To provide for the celebration of the feasts, as the Dionysia, etc.
2. To settle disputes arising between neighbours and citizens, and to determine all causes between married people.
3. To take care of orphans, provide them tutors, and superintend their estates.

DUTIES OF THE KING ARCHON.

The duties of the King Archon were :

1. To superintend the festivals, and especially the Eleusinia.

2. To settle all disputes respecting the priesthood, and judge those accused of impiety.

DUTIES OF THE POLEMARCHUS.

The duties of the Polemarchus were :

1. To celebrate rites in honour of Mars and Diana.
2. To have under his care all foreigners and strangers, and settle actions brought against them.
3. To superintend the wars, over which he had the chief command, and thence received his name.

THESMOTHEtai.

The functions of the Thesmothetai were connected with the administration of justice, such as :

1. Receiving indictments, bringing cases to trial, and appointing the day of sitting.
2. Annually revising the code of laws.
3. Drawing up agreements with foreign states, etc.
4. Examining the magistrates, and taking the votes in the assemblies.

ELECTION OF ARCHONS.

The Archons were elected by lot, and before they were admitted to office passed an examination as to their family, age, past conduct, etc., and took oath that they would observe the laws, administer justice and accept no presents.

THE EPHOROI.

The Ephoroi, or "overseers," were the chief magistrates at Sparta; they were *five* in number, and *elected annually* from and by the people without any qualification of age

or property. Though at first only judicial officers, in time their authority became so great that even the two hereditary kings of Sparta, as well as the magistrates, were prosecuted or suspended at their discretion. They had the superintendence of the public morals, convened the public assembly, levied troops, etc., and had great influence in the most important matters. Every month they exchanged an oath with the kings, promising to defend the royal authority, provided it did not violate the laws. The tribunal of the Ephoroi was in a council hall in the Forum.

ASSEMBLIES.

Ecclesia.—The General Assembly of the citizens at Athens, in which they met to discuss matters of public interest. This assembly had the power of *making laws, electing magistrates, proclaiming war*, etc.; the place of meeting was either the *Agora* or *Pnyx*, in later times the *theatre of Bacchus*. The magistrates who presided in the Assembly were:

1. *Prytaneis*, who summoned the people, and announced the subject for decision.

2. *Prædri*, who occupied the front seats.

3. *President*, chosen by lot from the *Prædri*. The usual manner of giving votes was by holding up the hand, and as soon as the voting was ended the *Prædri* examined the suffrages, and pronounced the decree, *psephisma*, so called from the *psephoi*, pebbles which, together with beans (*kyami*), were sometimes used in voting.

BOULE OR SENATE.

The Senate of the Five Hundred.—The institution of this body is attributed to Solon, in whose time the

Council consisted of only *four hundred* members; but, on the tribes being remodelled by Cleisthenes, B.C. 510 the Council was increased to *five hundred*, and the members were divided into *ten* sections of *fifty* each, and were called *Prytaneis*: they presided in the Council, as well as the Assembly, during thirty-five or thirty-six days, so as to complete the lunar year of 354 days. Each tribe presided in turn, and the period of office was called a *Prytany*. The members of the Council remained in office for a year, at the end of which they were obliged to give an account of their conduct (*euthune*); and previous to entering office, they submitted to the *dokimasia*, or scrutiny into their private character.

THE APELLA.

The Apella, or General Assembly, was composed of all the citizens of Sparta over thirty years of age. By this body laws were made, and questions of peace and war decided; but nothing could be brought before it, save such matters as the Senate had previously decided might be entertained by it. It was by this assembly that the senators were elected.

THE GEROUSIA.

Gerousia was the name given to the Council of Elders, gerontes, or Senate at Sparta: it was composed of the *two Kings* and *twenty-eight citizens*, who had reached their *sixtieth year*. They were elected by the people, and were irresponsible. The *functions* of this Council were:

1. To propose measures to be laid before the Popular Assembly.

2. To discharge the highest offices of government.
3. To sit as the supreme criminal tribunal; and
4. To watch over the public morals.

JUDGES AND COURTS OF JUSTICE.

The Court of Areopagus.—This was the most ancient and venerable seat of justice in Athens; it derived its name from the *Areios Pagos* (the hill of Mars) because, it is said, Mars was the first criminal tried. The court was composed of *ex-archons* who had discharged their office unblamably, and of the most distinguished citizens: the number of judges varied at different times. They were termed *Areiopagitai*, and took cognizance of all crimes, vices, and abuses, such as robbery, murder, poisoning, arson, etc.; they overlooked religious matters, and punished severely for impiety and contempt of holy mysteries. So great was their power that they sometimes even annulled the decrees of the Popular Assembly.

THE HELIASTS.

The Heliasts, so named from their court, *Heliiaia*, were a body of Judges chosen by lot, and varied in number; sometimes the *Heliastiai* were *six thousand* in number. They took cognizance of affairs of the greatest importance, but were not permitted to pass sentence until they had taken oath to decide according to the decrees of the people.

THE DIETETÆ.

The Forty.—The diatetai were inferior judges who settled private disputes, subject to an appeal before the Heliasts. They were chosen *yearly* from the *phylai*, or

tribes, and were required to be fifty or sixty years of age. The Forty were also inferior judges who annually took a circuit through the *Demi*, and decided causes where the matter in dispute did not exceed 10 drachmæ.

COURT OF THE EPHETÆ.

The Ephetai were judges, fifty-one in number, selected from noble families, and required to be more than fifty years of age. *Their jurisdiction* extended to cases of *justifiable* and *unintentional murder*; when judging of the former, they sat at the *Delphinium*; when of the latter, at the *Palladium*.

Amphictyones were members of the *Amphiktyonia*, which was a confederation formed for mutual security, and for the protection of a temple at which the members assembled to transact business and celebrate their festivals. The most celebrated was the *Delphic Amphiktyonia*, originally composed of *twelve tribes*, whose deputies met annually at *Delphi* in the spring and at *Thermopylæ* in the autumn. The council itself was called *Pylæa*.

Roman Antiquities.

THE EARLY TRIBAL DIVISIONS.

The Roman people were divided by Romulus into three tribes (*tribus*) *Ramnes* or *Ramnenses*, *Titienses*, and *Luceres*: these tribes were again divided into *thirty curiæ*, each of which had its *curio*, or president, and the whole body had a *curic maximus*.

SOCIAL DIVISIONS.

The inhabitants of Rome were at first divided into two ranks (*ordines*): 1. *Patricii*, and 2. *Plebei*—these were connected together as *Patroni* and *Clientes*; afterwards, the *Equites*, forming a kind of intermediate order, were added. The *Patricii* appear to have been the original citizens, and were divided into *curiæ* and *gentes*, or clans, united by religious ties or family connexion. They were entirely separated from the *Plebei*, no connubium or marriage being permitted between the orders, and were the only parties eligible to the Senate, or the higher offices in the religious and political government of the state.

In time, however, the Plebeians increased in importance by the admission of conquered tribes into their order, so that, from the time of *Servius Tullius*, they took part in the *comitia* or legal assemblies, and ultimately obtained the connubium and equal rights with the Patricians. The *Equites* were at first only a military order, 300 in number (*celeres*) and instituted by Romulus. This number was increased by the successive kings; the *Equites* had a horse at the public charge (*equus publicus*) and (*æs equestre*) a sum for its support. Latterly, however, the name *Equites* was extended from those who had horses at the public charge to all those having horses of their own, and qualified by their property to act as judges, and thus the military character of the original order disappeared, and all free-born citizens possessing *four hundred thousand sestertii* were *Equites*, or of the Equestrian order. The insignia of these Knights were the *annulus aureus*, gold ring, and the *angustus clavus*,

a narrow band of purple wrought in the cloth, and extending from each shoulder to the bottom of the tunica. The Equites occupied the first fourteen benches at the theatres.

NEW PARTIES.

When the ancient difference between Patricians and Plebeians had disappeared, then arose a new classification, *Nobiles* and *Ignobiles*; the only privilege of the *Nobiles* was the *jus imaginum*, an ancient custom of setting up in the atria or courts of their houses waxen busts or effigies of their ancestors. These *Nobiles* were again divided into *Optimates* or *Conservatives*, and *Populares* or *Radicals*.

THE SLAVE ELEMENT.

When the Roman empire enlarged its territories, there arose another division, *Servi*, or slaves, who became such either by being taken in *war*, by *sale*, by way of *punishment*, or by *being born in a state of punishment*. They received a monthly allowance, but could not obtain property without the consent of their masters. Slaves were sold at Rome by auction, and became either the property of private individuals or of the state.

The state of slavery was terminated by *Manumissio*, which was effected either by entering a slave's name on the Censor's books (*censu*), or by certain ceremonies with a rod (*vindicta*) before the Prætor, or by will (*testamento*).

THE SENATE (SENATUS).

The Senate, according to tradition, was instituted by Romulus, and consisted at first of only *one hundred*

members (*senatores* or *patres*), chosen from the *Patricians*. This number was increased to *two hundred* when the Sabine *Tities* became united to the Latin *Ramnes*, and *another one hundred* were also added when the *Luceres*, consisting chiefly of Etruscans, were incorporated in the time of Tarq. Priscus; these new Senators were called *Patres minorum gentium*, in distinction to the old Senators, *Patres majorum gentium*. The vacancies which occurred in the Senate after the abolition of the monarchy (B.C. 509) were filled up by Plebeians of Equestrian rank, who were designated *Conscripti*, and hence the Senate was addressed as *Patres (sc. et)*. The number of *three hundred* remained until the time of *Sulla*, when the Senate consisted of between *five and six hundred*. The Senate possessed the administrative authority in such matters as religious worship, taxation, levying of troops, negotiations with foreign states, embassies, provincial government, etc.

The sittings of the Senate were either regular (*senatus legitimus*) or extraordinary (*senatus indictus*), and were held between sunrise and sunset. When the members had assembled, the presiding magistrate announced the subject (*referre ad Senatum*), and called on each member to state his opinions (*rogare sententias, sententias dicere*); this he delivered either by a single word or in a speech; then followed the voting (*discessio, pedibus ire in sententiam alicujus*). The decree, when passed (*Senatus Consultum vel Decretum*), was written down and placed in the *ærarium* or treasury, under the care of the *Prætor*.

A certain number of Senators were required to be present to make a decree valid, and those absenting

themselves without just cause were fined. For *Intercessio vide* Tribuni.

It was required in a candidate that he should be free-born, and possess a certain amount of property; latterly, 800,000 sesterii. The *Senators* were chosen (*legebantur*) by the *Kings*, by the *Consuls*, and, in later times, by the *Censors*; one of the qualifications necessary was that the candidate should have fulfilled the duties of the magistracy, the first degree of which was the quæstorship. The *insignia* of the *Senators* were the *latus clavus*, a broad band of purple extending from the neck down to the centre of the tunic, and the *calceus lunatus*, a high shoe adorned with a small crescent. The *Senators* had also certain seats at the public shows.

ASSEMBLIES (COMITIA).

The *Comitia* were the legal meetings of the Roman people, at which their votes were taken on matters connected with the government of the State. The *Comitia* could only be held on certain days (*dies comitiales*), never on festivals; and, previous to meeting, notice was given (*promulgari*) of the subject for decision. There were *three kinds* of *Comitia*: 1. *Comitia Curiata*; 2. *Comitia Centuriata*; 3. *Comitia Tributa*.

1. *Comitia Curiata* were held, in a part of the *Forum* called *Comitium*, first by the *Kings* and afterwards by the *Consuls* and *Prætors*. Though at first they were assemblies of the whole people, and possessed power in enacting laws and confirming the authority of the *Kings*, on the decline of the *Patrician* power they lost their importance. The *Comitia Calata* belonged to these *Comitia*,

which were merely meetings for the purpose of sanctioning certain proceedings, inaugurating the Flamines, etc.

2. *Comitia Centuriata* were held, *extra Pomœrium*, in the *Campus Martius*, either by the Consul or Prætor. In these *Comitia* the Consuls, Prætors and Censors were elected, laws were passed, war declared, and capital offences tried. The *Comitia Centuriata* were usually assembled by an edict, and summoned twenty-seven days before the period of meeting; this space of time was called *trinundinum*. All those who had the right of Roman citizens might be present and voted according to their property. On the day of meeting the auspices were consulted by the presiding magistrate and the augurs, and the *Comitia* were opened with sacrifice and prayer. After the debate, if no religious obstacle prevented, the people were called on to arrange themselves for voting. The *Equites* voted first, and the *six classes* in succession. The votes were at first *viva voce*, but were afterwards delivered in writing by means of a *tabella*. The centuries which were to vote passed over bridges into an inclosed space (*ovile*), where the *tabellæ* were supplied, and thrown by the voters into the *cistæ* or ballot-boxes, from which they were taken and counted, and the result of the voting proclaimed with a loud voice.

3. *Comitia Tributa* were held both *intra* and *extra Pomœrium*, under the presidency of the *Tribunes of the People*. At these *Comitia* the *inferior magistrates* were chosen, as well as the *Ædiles Curules*, and the *Tribunes of the People* after B.C. 471; and after B.C. 104 the members of the Colleges of Priests. Laws were passed at these *Comitia* called *Plebiscita*, which at first bound only

the Plebeians; but after B.C. 306 they concerned the whole people. The Patricians seldom attended, as the votes of all were of equal force.

MAGISTRATES AND CHIEF PUBLIC OFFICERS.

(The dates affixed are those of the institution of the various offices.)

ÆDILES PLEBIS.

Ædiles Plebis, B.C. 494, two functionaries from the Plebei, to take charge of the public buildings, to judge in inferior cases, inspect weights and measures, and prohibit unlawful games.

ÆDILES CURULES.

Ædiles Curules, B.C. 365, two in number, elected at first from the Patricii. They superintended the public games, took care of the buildings, repaired the temples, theatres, baths, etc., and were appointed judges in all cases relating to the buying and selling of estates.

ÆDILES CEREALES.

Ædiles Cereales, B.C. 45, two in number, elected from the Plebei. They inspected the public stores of corn, all commodities exposed in the markets, and punished delinquents in all cases of buying and selling. The office was instituted by Julius Cæsar. The *Ædiles* had various officers under them, viz., *præcones* or “criers,” *scribæ* or “clerks,” and *viatores* or “attendants” and “messengers.”

APPARITORES.

Apparitores, the general name given to the public officers who waited on the magistrates, such as the *Accensi*, *Lictores*, *Scribæ*, *Præcones*, *Viatores*, etc.

CENSORES.

Censores, B.C. 443, two officers of high rank and authority, elected (at first from among the Patricians) for a lustrum, or space of five years; but latterly the period of office was only for eighteen months. *The duties* were of *three* kinds: 1. To take an exact account of the property and estates of every person (*census*), and to divide the people into their proper classes or centuries; 2. To superintend the administration of the finances of the State, and meet the expenses attendant on the erection or repairs of temples, public buildings, etc.; 3. To punish immorality in any person: the *Senators* they might expel from the Curia or Senate-house: the *Knights* they might punish by depriving them of the horse allowed them at the public charge; and the *Commons* they might remove from a high tribe to one less honourable, impose on them a fine or disable them from voting in the Assemblies.

CONSULES.

Consules, B.C. 509, the principal annual Roman magistrates, two in number. The office was established on the expulsion of Tarquinius, the last King of Rome. At the *first institution*, the Consuls were elected from the *Patricians only*; but afterwards, B.C. 366, the *Plebeians* obtained the right of electing one. The common age required in a candidate was *forty-three years*; the time of election was about the end of July or beginning of August, they were then called *designati* until entering on their office, the period of undertaking which varied at different times. At first their power was as great as that of the Kings, and their badges of office nearly the

same, in public being always preceded by twelve lictors, with the fasces. They wore the toga prætexta, sat on the curule chair, and carried an ivory sceptre. Their chief duties were presiding in the Senate, administering justice, levying troops, commanding armies and provinces, conducting the Circensian games, etc. The *first Consuls* elected were *L. Junius Brutus* and *L. Tarquinius Collatinus*.

CURATORES.

Curatores, public officers of various kinds, viz.: *Curatores Annonæ* (of corn), *Curatores Riparum* (of the navigation of the Tiber), *Curatores Kalendarii* (of books containing the names of persons who borrowed public money), *Curatores Ludorum* (of the public games), *Curatores Operum Publicorum* (of public works), etc.

DICTATOR.

Dictator, B.C. 501, a magistrate with supreme authority among the Romans; he was nominated by the Consuls, the auspices being taken at midnight. The Dictator was only elected at times when great danger threatened the State. His period of office was *six months*, sometimes even less. So great was the power of this officer that he might proclaim war, levy forces, and lead them to battle, or disband them, without any consultation with the Senate. He could also punish as he pleased, and there was no appeal from him, at least until later times. The insignia of the office were the sella curulis and toga prætexta; the Dictator was also preceded by twenty-four lictors, and *during his tenure of office all other magistrates resigned except*

the Tribuni Plebis. On his election, his first act was to choose a *Magister Equitum*, or Master of the Horse, who always attended him. *T. Lartius Flavus*, or Rufus, was the first Dictator, and *Sp. Cassius Viscellinus* the first *Magister Equitum*.

PRÆFECTUS URBI.

Præfectus Urbi (office instituted by Romulus), an officer who presided in the city during the absence of the Kings or Consuls. The office was latterly merged in that of *Prætor Urbanus*.

PRÆTOR.

Prætor, B.C. 366, one of the chief magistrates at Rome, next to the Consuls. In B.C. 246 a *Prætor* was appointed, called *Peregrinus*, whose duty it was to administer justice in matters of dispute between *peregrini* (foreigners) or *peregrini* and Roman citizens. The *other Prætor* was then called *Urbanus*. *Sp. Furius Camillus* was the first *Prætor*: the number varied at different times. *The duty* of the *Prætor* was (1) to administer justice (his tribunal was called *Prætorium*), and (2) to act as Consul in the absence of that officer. He was entitled to the *prætecta*, the *sella curulis*, two lictors when at Rome, and six when out. The exercise of the *prætorian* authority was signified by the words *do* (when they granted license to institute a trial), *dico* (when they pronounced sentence), and *addico* (when they gave the goods of a debtor to a creditor). *Prætors* were also sent to govern provinces subject to the Romans.

PRO-CONSUL.

Pro-Consul, B.C. 327, a magistrate sent to govern a province with Consular power. It was usual for Consuls, on the expiration of their Consulship at Rome, formally to obtain leave of the people, and get a decree of the Senate for permission to govern a province. The command lasted one year, at the end of which the Pro-Consul made up his accounts, left them in writing in the two chief cities of the province, and returned to Rome. The insignia were the same as the Consuls, but only six lictors.

PROCURATOR.

Procurator, an officer of the *Imperial* provinces, who discharged the same duties as the *Quæstors* in other provinces.

PRO-PRÆTOR.

Pro-Prætor, an officer who had all the authority of a Prætor. The name was assumed by those who, as Prætors, had continued in power beyond the time fixed.

QUÆSTORES.

Quæstores, magistrates, at first *two* in number; increased B.C. 421 to *four*, B.C. 265 to *eight*, by *Sulla* B.C. 82 to *twenty*, by *Cæsar* to *forty*. They had the management of the public treasury. Two Quæstors accompanied the Consuls in all their expeditions; they received the name *Peregrini*, the other two *Urbani*. When the number was augmented, certain Quæstors were sent to collect the taxes in various provinces. No person was eligible to this office under the age of twenty-two years.

TRIBUNI PLEBIS.

Tribuni Plebis, B.C. 494, certain Roman magistrates elected from among the Commons to defend their liberties; they were at first only *two* in number, afterwards increased to *five*, and lastly to *ten*. Though at first only redressers of public wrongs, they afterwards assumed great power. They *made decrees*, and *carried laws*, which they executed on magistrates themselves, ordering even Consuls to prison; they possessed the right of *intercessio*, and their persons were *sacrosancti*. Nothing could be concluded without their consent, which was signified by affixing the letter *T* to the decree. They could prevent the passing of any measure by standing up, and pronouncing the simple word *veto* (called *intercessio*). They kept open houses, and were never allowed to leave the city, except at the festival *Ferix Latinæ*, held on the Alban Mount.

TRIBUNI MILITUM.

Tribuni Militum, B.C. 445, elected with Consular power. They were *three* in number, but in B.C. 405 increased to *six*. For many years the number of these tribunes was very irregular. The office was abolished B.C. 367.



